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in Memory of the late
Mr Balacrushna Venayek Wassoodew
by his family.
to
Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society

THE
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HISTORY OF INDIA.

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HISTORY OF INDIA.

BY

DAVID SINCLAIR, M.A.,
LATE FELLOW OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS.

REVISED BY

J. H. STONE, M.A.,
PRINCIPAL, KUMBAKONAM COLLEGE.
FELLOW OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS.

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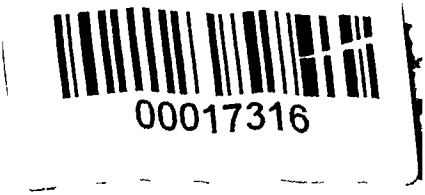

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Date....June 1964..

PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION.

In revising Mr. Sinclair's History of India I thought it desirable to somewhat alter the plan of that work. Mr. Sinclair treated the whole of Mahratta history in one section, which preceded the sections devoted to the history of the British occupation, with the result that he described the contest between the Mahrattas and the British before he had explained how the latter came to be in India at all. I have treated the early history of the Mahrattas at the end of the Mughal Period, and their subsequent history in its chronological place in connection with the consolidation of British power. The result of this change of plan and of other minor alterations is that the numbering of the paragraphs differs in the two editions. A table showing the paragraphs in the new edition corresponding to those in the old is printed after the contents to facilitate the use of the old and revised editions side by side.

RAJAHMUNDRY,
17th April, 1899.

J. H. STONE.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

The works that have been chiefly consulted in the preparation of this book are: "Hinduism," "Indian Wisdom," and "Hindu Epic Poetry," by Monier Williams: "Buddhism," by Rhys Davids: "Islam," by Stobart: Elphinston's, Talboys Wheeler's, and Marshman's Histories of India: Keane's "Mughal Empire": Grant Duff's and Waring's Histories of the Mahrattas: Malcolm's "Central India," and "History of the Sikhs": Murray's "History of India": Kay's "Sepoy War": and Malison's "History of the Indian Mutiny."

June 1881. D. S.

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HISTORY OF INDIA.

INTRODUCTION.

INDIA is a particularly well-defined tract of country, having on every side well-marked boundaries of sea or mountain chains, but it is not now, and never has been, inhabited by one nation of men having the same language and religion, and only within very recent times has the whole of India been really brought under one government. The history of India is therefore the history not of any one Indian people, but rather of the many peoples that have lived in India from time to time under separate governments, and of the more or less successful attempts that have been made to establish governments over the whole continent.

The great diversity of races in India may be seen from the number and distribution of the Indian languages.

In the north we find Hindi, Hindustani, Bengali, Punjabi, Kashmiri, Sindi: in the central regions Marathi, Gujarati, Uriya, Telugu, and Gond: and in the south of the peninsula Tamil, Malayalam, and Canarese: not to mention other languages spoken by comparatively small numbers of people. There are, moreover, other languages more or less generally known. *Sanskrit* is common to all Hindus, and with its literature is greatly revered by them. *Persian* and *Arabic* are to the Muhammadans very much what Sanskrit is to the Hindus, and within the last thirty years a knowledge of *English* has become more and more common.

Learned men who have carefully compared the Indian languages proper with one another and with those of Europe, tell us that they fall into two great classes. In the one are the languages of the north, and most of those of Central India, Hindi, Hindustani, Bengali, Punjabi, Kashmiri, Sindi, Marathi, Gujarati, and Uriya: in the other, Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Canarese and Gond. Languages of the one group are called Aryan, and of the other Dravidian, and it is believed that the existence of these two great classes of languages shows that most of the Hindus belonged originally to one or other of two great races, the Aryan and the Dravidian.

It has, moreover, been mentioned that there are other less important languages spoken by uncivilized tribes inhabiting the hills of different parts of India. These are neither Aryan nor Dravidian.

To these differences of languages we must add differences of religion. Four-fifths of the population are Hindus and a great majority of the remaining fifth are Muhammadans, the rest being made up of Jains and Christians.

Now when we have noticed these differences of language and religion in India as we now know it, it seems easy to infer that different races of men must from time to time have come into the country bringing their languages and their religions with them. We know a good deal about the coming and deeds of some of these races, because written records of them remain. We have plenty of information about the doings of the English, and the Portuguese, and the Dutch in India, and we know a good deal about Muhammadanism and Christianity in India, but when we come to ask why the north of India is inhabited mainly by people speaking Aryan languages and the south people speaking Dravidian ones, the question is much harder to answer. It is certain, however, that the Dravidian races were in India before the Aryans, but it is not certainly known how they came there. They may

have entered India from the north, although their languages are not now spoken north of Lake Chilka; they probably found in India still earlier inhabitants, and as the Dravidians spread in the country conquering these aborigines, probably first making slaves of them, and afterwards taking wives from among their women, the languages and religions of the aborigines disappeared and those of the Dravidians took their place. In forests and mountains the aborigines still remained unaffected by Dravidian influences, and the descendants of these are still to be recognized in the hill tribes such as the Konds in Central India, the Bhils in Rajputana, the Santals in Bengal, and the Todas in Southern India.

It must be noticed that there is no probability that the Dravidians drove out all the aboriginal inhabitants and took their places. They of course became the ruling race and imposed on the vanquished their language and religion, but they also mingled with the vanquished and formed what was really a mixed race. The language men speak is not necessarily a proof of the race to which they belong, and it must not be thought that all who speak the Dravidian languages are of unmixed Dravidian origin, or that all who speak the various Aryan tongues are pure-blooded Aryans. The Aryans entered India through the North-Western passes as the Dravidians had perhaps done, and like them conquered and colonised and imposed their language and religion on the inhabitants, and so immense has the Aryan influence been in the history of India that we shall begin it with some account of the Aryans and their invasions.

THE EARLY HINDU PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

THE ARYANS.

1. The Aryans.
2. Aryan influence in India.
3. Religion.
4. Social Organisation.

1. The Aryans.—Our knowledge of the Aryans and their invasion of India is very small. In very early times it appears that a race of tall, fair-complexioned men lived in the plateau of Central Asia, somewhere near the source of the river Oxus. They were a brave and enterprising people; and we find, that as they increased in numbers, they began to look out for better and richer lands to dwell in. Many of them went west and became the ancestors of the European nations. Others came south and took up their abode at first on the banks of the river Sindhu (Indus); and their Persian neighbours, naming them after the river on whose banks they had settled, called them Hindus. After a time they crossed the Sindhu and took possession of the country on its eastern bank. But they were not allowed to do so unopposed. The original inhabitants of the country were soon up in arms against the invaders, and many fierce fights would seem to have taken place. Steadily, though slowly, the Aryans continued to advance. They took possession of the district in the Punjab between the Drishadvati and Sarasvati, and named it Brahmavarta, 'abode of the gods.' There they settled quietly for some centuries, and it was probably during this period that the Mantras were composed. More territory was then needed. Onward the Aryans pressed till they reached the Ganges, and to this new province they gave the name

Brahmarshidesa. During the next two centuries they took possession of new territory, which extended as far as the modern Allahabad, and this they called Madhyadesa. Nor did they stop there. They continued their conquests, until they had over-run the valley of the Ganges and occupied Central India. The whole of this country was called by the Hindu writers Aryavarta, 'abode of the Aryans.' It included all the provinces, "as far as the eastern and as far as the western oceans between the two mountains" (the Himalaya and the Vindhya mountains). This part of India the Persians called Hindustan, 'the land of the Hindus,' while that portion of the country south of the Vindhya range began to be known as the Deccan. When the Greeks invaded the country, they dropped the aspirate in *Hindu*, and called the people Indoi. Hence the name India, now applied to all that country lying between the Himalayas and Cape Comorin, the Indus and the Brahmaputra.

2. **Aryan influence in India.**—It has been said, that notwithstanding the many political changes that have taken place in India, the moral influence of the Indo-Aryan race has remained paramount. In order to explain the character of this moral influence it is necessary to attempt some description of the Aryan religions and social systems, because much as the Hindu customs have altered since primitive times, the beginnings of Hinduism are to be found in Aryan institutions.

3. **Religion.**—The earliest information about the Aryan religion is to be found in the Vedas, books written in the Sanskrit language. The word Veda means knowledge, and is applied to divine, *unwritten* knowledge. The Vedas are said to have issued from God (Brahma) himself, and to be eternal with God; to have been communicated by God to certain holy men called Rishis; and by constant

oral repetition, to have been handed down by them to a sect of teachers, who were called Brahmans, and who became the repositories of the divine word. The Vedas are the compositions of different poets, who lived at different times; but the exact date of the composition of any of them cannot be determined. There are four Vedas called the Rig-Veda, the Yajur-Veda, the Sama-Veda and the Atharva-Veda. Each of these consists of three parts; the Hymns or Mantras, the Upanishads and the Brahmanas. Of these the hymns are by far the oldest, the other portions being of the nature of commentary and addition, and the work of Brahmins in comparatively recent times. The oldest of all the Vedic writings are the Sanhitas of the Rig-Veda, they are beautiful poetical compositions and from them we get a good deal of information about the Aryans. They were a pastoral and agricultural people. The increase of their flocks and the yield of their crops depended very much on the elements; hence their religion consisted of 'the worship of the elements.' The Mantras are addressed to deities as manifested in the forces of nature; in the oldest, those written while the Aryans lived in the cold climate of Central Asia, Agni the Fire-god, and Surya the Sun-god are oftenest invoked. Later when they had entered India, the necessity of a copious water-supply was most plain to them, and we find Indra the god of rain takes his place as the principal deity. Later still the three gods form a mystic triad in which Surya, Agni and Indra are the three aspects of deity, Creator, Preserver, Destroyer, and this conception of a triune deity we see again in the Hindu trinity of Brahma, the Creator, Siva, the Destroyer, Vishnu, the Preserver.

In many respects, however, the old vedic religion differed from Hinduism. We do not find in it caste or the transmigration of souls, nor the sacredness of cattle. Moreover the Aryans made use of an intoxicating drink, Soma, in their ceremonies, and sacrificed animals.

4. Social Organisation.—The Aryans in those earliest times possessed chariots, horses, ships and mailed armour, which shows that they had a certain amount of civilization. Their social system was *patriarchal*, that is, the family tie was very rigidly observed and the head of a family exercised absolute authority over its members, who lived together in the same house, and he was besides the priest of the family. The women enjoyed great freedom, perhaps equality with the men, and there was no widow-burning. A number of families formed a tribe, and probably the head of the oldest family would be chief of the tribe. As there was no caste division each man might in turn have to be warrior, priest, and farmer.

CHAPTER II.

THE RISE OF BRAHMANISM.

5. Effects of conquest on Aryan Institutions.
6. The Brahmanas.
7. The Upanishads.

5. Effects of conquest on Aryan Institutions.—The social organisation of the Aryans described in the last chapter was very much modified by their Indian conquests and colonisation.

To obtain united action in war it would be necessary that the various tribes should be united under a leader or chief. The chieftain of the most powerful clan would naturally be appointed commander also of the smaller clans that united with it, and he would thus become the *Raja* or king over all. Engaged so much in war, he and his fighting men would have but little time, and, being often no doubt absent from their families, little opportunity of attending to domestic religious ceremonies. Hence would arise the necessity for a certain number of each tribe being set apart to conduct religious rites and offer up sacrifices. What position

these held in the tribe we do not know. Probably at first they would be regarded as inferior to the fighting men; but by degrees, they were destined to form themselves into a class or caste, to claim superiority to all the rest of the tribe, and as Brahmans, to have that superiority acknowledged.

6. **The Brahmanas.**—With the lapse of centuries from the early Vedic times, and the rise and growth of this priesthood, many changes were introduced into the religion of the country, especially with reference to the sacrifices offered to the gods, and the objects for which those sacrifices were offered. The Brahmanas contain the ritual to be observed at sacrifices, together with explanations of the origin and import of such sacrifices. In the earliest Vedic times, sacrifices consisted of butter and the juice of the soma plant; but now, animal and probably even human sacrifices were offered. Human sacrifices were certainly offered for a long time to propitiate the goddess Kali. The Brahmans, however, do not seem to have looked on such sacrifices with favour, and horses, goats, oxen and sheep were substituted. The object for which those sacrifices were offered was expiation for sin. The Brahmans officiated as priests and they soon came to be regarded as the medium of communication between God and man. The number of sacrifices continued to increase. Thousands of victims were daily brought to the altar, and, as the ritual belonging to the sacrifices was of the most complicated kind, the necessity for a complete organization of priests increased with the increase in the number of sacrifices. The Brahmans, therefore, continued steadily to grow in power and influence, although it is almost certain that the Kshatriyas or fighting men did what they could in opposition to them.

The legend of Parasu Rama extirpating the whole race of the Kshatriyas twenty-one times seems to typify the

conflict between Brahmans and Kshatriyas and the final victory of the former.

7. **The Upanishads.**—The power thus acquired by the Brahmans was exercised in a very despotic way. Laws were introduced the whole tendency of which was to exalt the Brahmans over the other classes, and indeed to regard the other classes as being made for the good of the Brahmans alone. But a change was to follow. The public mind began to turn against the Brahmans and Brahmanism. Men began to look within themselves and to ask, "What am I?" "Whence have I come?" "What shall I be after death?" and so to try to think out for themselves the great problems of life by the aid of their reason. It was during this period of mental activity that the Upanishads, a collection of religious tracts full of philosophical speculations, and forming the third part of the Vedas, were composed.

At the same time six schools of philosophy arose in the land, and those we will simply name.

The Nyaya	founded by	Gautama.
The Vaiseshika	„	Kanada.
The Sankhya	„	Kapila.
The Yoga	„	Patanjali.
The Mimamsa	„	Jaimini.
The Vedanta	„	Badarayâna or Vyasa.

Contemporaneous with those schools, there appeared a man, who was to found a religious system that for a time was almost to supersede Brahmanism, and to become the royal, if not the national religion of India; that was destined to spread over the greater part of Asia; and that now has as its followers two-fifths of the human race. This man was named Gautama Sakya Muni, afterwards called Buddha, 'The enlightened one.'

CHAPTER III.

BRAHMANIC OR HEROIC PERIOD.

8. Authorities for the period.
9. The Laws of Manu.
10. The Epics.
11. The Ramayana.
12. The Mahabharata.
13. The Epics as history.

8. Authorities for the period.—In the last Chapter something has been said of the changes in the social and religious systems of the Aryans produced by their conquests in India. We do not know when these changes took place, but they had taken place by 327 B.C. when Alexander the Great invaded India. At that time Hindu Society had acquired an organisation that it maintained down to the Muhammadan invasions. From three great ancient writings we learn a great deal about that organisation, these are The Laws of Manu, The Ramayana, and The Mahabharata. Different learned men hold very different opinions as to the times at which these books were written. They all agree, however, that Hindu institutions as they existed in the purely Hindu age of Indian History are depicted in them. For this reason the main features of the Brahmanic or Heroic age of Hindu history, which may be regarded as lasting down to the Muhammadan invasions, will be best brought out by a description of each of these books.

9. The Laws of Manu. — This purports to be a complete code of laws drawn up by the sage Manu for the whole community and especially for Brahmans. It is impossible to say when the code was put into the form in which it now exists, but there is no doubt that much of its contents are very ancient. It is not probable that the laws laid down in it were ever strictly enforced or exactly obeyed, but their publication shows in a general way how society in early times was organised, and no doubt had a great influence in extending and consolidating the power of the

Brahmans. We shall now proceed to give a summary of the Laws of Manu under convenient heads.

i. **The four castes.**—It was declared that there were only four pure castes, Brahmans, priests; Kshatriyas, warriors; Vaisyas, agriculturists; and Sudras, servants. The first three of these classes constituted the "twice-born," so called, because at a certain age they were invested with a sacred string, in token of their receiving a second or spiritual birth. The Brahmans, as having sprung from the mouth of the Creator, and as being in possession of the Vêdas, were the lords of all classes. They were declared to be possessed of a divine nature, and often assumed a pre-eminence little short of divine. The Kshatriyas were held in high estimation; but as the Raja had always a Brahman minister as his adviser, and had to act as directed by him, frequent jealousies and disputes arose, that led to wars between the two highest classes. The Vaisyas also had their privileges. They, too, were called the "twice-born;" but all their domestic rites, to be duly performed, had to be superintended by the Brahmans. The fourth class, Sudras, occupied the lowest place in the social scale. They were servants, but not slaves; and were prohibited from over amassing riches. It is thought that the Sudras were a mixed race consisting of the original inhabitants of the country who had received the Aryan religion and civilization, and of the offspring of the intermarriages of Aryans with the original inhabitants. Perhaps the Vaisyas too had a similar origin. Manu speaks of Sudra dynasties, which we may explain on the supposition that there were native dynasties which the Aryans allowed to exist as dependent allies.

ii. **Government.**—The government was of a patriarchal character. The Raja was Raja by divine right, and his power was absolute. The country was divided into districts, over which Governors were placed, and these

Governors were entrusted with absolute power by the Raja. Under these Governors were subordinate Governors in a regular chain. The highest Governor was lord over a thousand towns, the next over one hundred, the next over twenty, the next over ten, and the lowest ruled over one town.

iii. Revenue.—The revenue of the Raja was obtained by levying taxes on land, on the produce of labour, on certain metals and commodities, and on purchases and sales. A kind of poll-tax, a small tax levied annually on every head of the population, was also imposed. The poorest classes, who were unable to pay taxes, gave the Raja one day's work every month.

iv. Village System.—The administration of the villages resembled very much the village system of the present day. The headman settled with the Raja the sum to be paid as revenue. This amount he apportioned out amongst the villagers, and he was responsible to the Raja for its collection, as also for the good conduct of the villagers. In return for this, he received from the Raja a piece of land rent-free, and sometimes also a salary. He acted also as arbiter, settled all disputes amongst the villagers and received fees from them. Under the headman were other officials, who were paid in a similar manner.

v. Administration of Justice.—Justice was administered by the Raja in person, assisted by Brahmans. The Criminal Code was very severe on Sudra offenders, but Brahmans were treated with great leniency. The punishment for a crime was graduated according to the caste to which the offender belonged. For example, a Kshatriya insulting a Brahman was fined one hundred panas, a Vaisya doing the same had to pay one hundred and fifty panas, a Sudra doing the same received corporal punishment.

vi. Social position of Women.—Women in the Code of Manu occupied a position of complete subordination. The wife was made at all times to feel her dependence on her husband, and she had to reverence him even as a god. A widow was not allowed to remarry; but there is no allusion to *sati*.

vii. Divisions of a Brahman's life.—Rules were laid down for regulating a Brahman's life from his birth to his death. His life was divided into four stages as he became *first*, a religious student; *second*, a householder; *third*, an anchorite or hermit, living in the jungles and submitting to severe penance; *fourth*, a religious mendicant or sanyasi, one who gives up the world and devotes himself entirely to contemplation.

10. The Epics.—The Ramayana and Mahabharata are the two great Hindu epic poems. They refer to a time when the Hindus were divided into many clans, two of which occupy a prominent place in the poems. The one had its capital at Ayodhya, near the present *Oudh*; the other had its capital, first at Prayag (*Allahabad*), and afterwards at Hastinapura, near the modern *Delhi*. Two races of kings are described as having reigned over those two states from time immemorial, the kings of Ayodhya tracing their descent from the sun—the kings of Prayag, from the moon. The social and political history of those two kingdoms is to be found in the two celebrated epic poems, "The Ramayana" and "The Mahabharata."

11. The Ramayana.—The Ramayana, "the adventures of Rama," is said to have been compiled by Valmiki. The hero of the poem is Rama. His father Dasaratha was the fifty-sixth in descent from Ikshvaku, the grandson of Surya (the sun). Dasaratha, having no heir, had recourse to a great Putrakameshti, "sacrifice in desire of a son," and in answer the gods promised him four sons.

At this time, Ravana, chief of the Rakshasas, having by long penance obtained from the god Brahma the boon, "that neither gods, genii, demons nor giants should be able to vanquish him," was committing such havoc, that "even the universe was in danger of being destroyed." As Ravana had not, however, asked to be preserved from man, Vishnu agreed to become mortal to free the earth from this monster, and, accordingly, four sons were born to Dasaratha, each possessing a portion of the nature of Vishnu; Rama, possessing a half; Bharata, a fourth; and Lakshmana and Satrughna, each an eighth part. Rama and Lakshmana spent their youth at the hermitage of the sage Visvamitra. At that time, Janaka, king of Mithila, was about to hold a great assembly and to give away his daughter, Sita, in marriage, to any one that could string the bow of Siva. The two brothers set out thither, and Rama having succeeded in bending the bow, obtained Sita in marriage and returned with her to Ayodhya.

Dasaratha then resolved to inaugurate Rama as his successor. When Kaikeyi, mother of Bharata, heard of this, she determined in the interests of her own son to prevent it. She reminded Dasaratha that he had promised in former years to grant her any two favours she might ask, and she desired him now to fulfil his promise by banishing Rama for fourteen years and installing Bharata as heir-apparent. As such a promise could not be broken, Rama went into banishment, accompanied by his wife, Sita, and his brother, Lakshmana. Dasaratha died from grief. Bharata, thereupon, went in search of Rama to ask him to return and take up the government; but Rama refused and continued his wanderings through the forests of Dandaka as far south as the Godavari. In his journeyings he met the sister of Ravana, and she, having been slighted by Rama, called on her brother to avenge her wrongs. Ravana crossed over from Ceylon in his aërial car

and carried off Sita. Rama set out in search of his lost wife and, discovering where she was, resolved to attack Ravana Sugriva, king of the monkeys, Hanuman, his general, and Vibhishana, brother of Ravana, joined him. They crossed into Ceylon, and Rama, with the terrible bow of Brahma, shot Ravana dead. Rama and Sita then returned to Ayodhya. Rama ascended the throne. But the people were displeased with him for taking back Sita, after she had been so long in Ravana's palace. In public assembly she called on the goddess earth to witness her innocence, and the earth opened and received her. Rama could not stay behind her. He offered the kingdom to each of his brothers in succession, but they each refused it and said they would follow him. They accordingly set out to the river Sarayu, and, having descended into the water, entered their own body Vishnu.

12. The Mahabharata.—This poem is in celebration of the lunar kings, as the Ramayana is of the solar. The progenitor of the race was Budha, who reigned at Hastinapura. He was the son of Soma, the *Moon*, and must not be confounded with *Buddha*, "the enlightened one." From Budha, through a long line of descent, came Dhritarashtra and Pandu, sons of Vyasa, the supposed author of the poem. Dhritarashtra was the elder of the two, but as he was blind, he renounced the throne in favour of Pandu, "The pale." Meanwhile, Dhritarashtra married Gandhari, and had one hundred sons, the eldest of whom was Duryodhana, "The hard to subdue." They were called Kurus, or Kauravas. Pandu had five sons. Three, by his first wife Pritha or Kunti, viz., Yudhishtira, "Firm in Battle," Bhima, "The Terrible," and Arjuna, "The Shining One;" and two by his second wife, Madri, viz., Nakula, "The Mangoose," and Sahadeva, "The Creeper." They were called Pandus or Pandavas. Pandu died, and, as the people wished Yudhishtira to be associated with Dhritarashtra in

the government, Duryodhana prevailed on the latter, to send the Pandavas away to Varanavata (Allahabad). A house was made ready for their reception. The walls were plastered with mortar, composed of oil, fat and lac, the Kauravas intending, when their cousins were asleep, to set fire to the building. The Pandavas were informed of the treachery, and escaped by an underground passage when the building was set on fire. For a long time they wandered through the country, and at last, disguised as Brahmans, they betook themselves to the *Svayamvara*, "choice of the maiden," of Draupadi, daughter of Drupada, king of Panchala. Thither the sons of Dhritarashtra and a great concourse of suitors had also gone. A large amphitheatre having been erected for the spectators, a bow was produced, and Draupadi promised to accept as her husband the person that should shoot five arrows simultaneously from the bow through a revolving ring into a target some distance beyond. Suitor after suitor tried to bend the bow, but in vain. At length Arjuna advanced, disguised as a Brahman, and accomplished the feat. The rage of the other suitors knew no bounds. A terrible fight ensued; but it ended in Arjuna keeping possession of the field. Draupadi then became the common wife of the five brothers. Now that the Pandavas had secured a powerful ally in the king of Panchala, Dhritarashtra gave up one-half of the kingdom of Hastinapura to them, and they built a capital for themselves at Indraprastha, the modern Delhi. Before long, Yudhishtira was induced by the Kauravas to play at dice. He staked his kingdom, and even his wife, and lost all. An agreement was then come to, that the kingdom should be given up to Duryodhana for twelve years, that for these twelve years the Pandavas with Draupadi should live in the woods, and that, during the thirteenth year, they should live under false names and assume a disguise. At the end of the thirteenth year they returned and asked for the restoration of their king-

dom; but found it was only to be obtained by force of arms. Both sides then looked out for allies. Ancestors of almost all the Hindu Princes of earlier times joined the one side or the other. Krishna, king of Dwaraka (now worshipped as an incarnation of Vishnu), who had accompanied the Pandavas in their banishment, joined them. The opposing armies met on the plain of Kurukshetra, "the field of the Kauravas." As the hosts advanced, "the earth shook chafed by wild winds, the sands upcurled to heaven and spread a veil before the sun, thunder rolled, lightnings flashed, blazing meteors shot across the darkened sky, yet the chiefs, regardless of these portents, pressed on to mutual slaughter, and peals of shouting hosts commingling shook the world." The Pandavas were victorious. Yudhishtira ascended the throne and celebrated an *Aswamedha*,* "horse sacrifice," as an assertion of his authority over all India. The conquered princes were summoned that they might pay their homage to the conquerors, and eat of the flesh of the horse that had been sacrificed after the custom of the Kshatriyas. But Yudhishtira was very unhappy. He had taken part in the death of his kinsmen, and that weighed heavy on his heart. His kingdom, riches, even life itself had no attraction for him. He renounced his kingdom and set out on a journey to the Himalaya mountains, accompanied by his brothers and Draupadi. One by one these fell off, till Yudhishtira alone was left. Indra then appeared to him, and took him to heaven, where he obtained that happiness and peace which he could not find on earth.

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* The primitive idea of the *Aswamedha* was that a warrior should let a horse go free for a year, and if it wandered into the territory of other rajas, he should fight those rajas for supremacy. At the end of the year the horse was sacrificed, and all the rajas that had been conquered came to the feast, acknowledged the supremacy of the conqueror, and ate of the slaughtered animal.

13. The Epics as History.—It is not surprising that the Hindus love these beautiful and interesting stories, nor that they should very generally believe that the events related really took place. How far this is so learned men have not succeeded in deciding. It is clear that there is a good deal of fiction in the epics, but it does not follow that they are nothing but fiction. We may say that both are probably founded on facts, the Mahabarata on wars really fought in the Punjab, and the Ramayana on a peaceful expedition of the Aryans to the Deccan.

CHAPTER IV.

SCYTHIAN, PERSIAN, AND GREEK INVASIONS.

600 B.C. TO 325 B.C.

14. The Scythians.
15. Darius Hystaspes.
16. Alexander the Great.

14. The Scythians.—The history of the various kingdoms of India for many centuries after the Great War, is involved in hopeless obscurity. A long list of kings is mentioned, but nothing of historical interest with reference to them. We learn, however, that the Hindus were not left in undisturbed possession of the land they had conquered—that as they themselves had invaded India and taken possession of the country, so other foreigners followed and in their turn tried to wrest the country from them.

The first swarms of new invaders were of Scythian origin, that is, they came from northern Asia and were people of the same race as the Mughals. They were called by the Hindus Takshaks, *i.e.*, Serpents, probably because their national emblem was a serpent. It is said that they overthrew the kingdom of Magadha, and that ten gener-

6th century B.C.

ations of Takshak kings reigned there before they were expelled. The last of the race was Nanda, who was succeeded by his illegitimate son Sandracottus (Chandragupta), the founder of the *Mauryan* dynasty.

15. Darius Hystaspes.—The next invaders came from the west, from Persia, while Darius was king of that country. Having extended his conquests as far east as the Indus, Darius sent his admiral Skylax on a voyage of discovery down the river to the sea. On hearing from Skylax of the wealth of the country he had passed through, Darius crossed the Indus and occupied a part of India. How much of the country he conquered cannot be determined, but his Indian province is said to have furnished about one-third of the whole revenue of the Persian Empire, which was paid not in silver but in Gold. 518 B.C.

16. Alexander the Great.—The Persian authority in India was destined to be overthrown in the 4th century B.C. Alexander the Great was then King of Macedon. He was a man of boundless ambition, and one of the greatest generals the world has ever seen. He first made himself supreme ruler of Greece, and then led the Greeks against their ancient enemies the Persians. He defeated Darius III. a successor of Darius Hystaspes, and brought all the countries of western Asia up to the river Indus under his authority. In 327 B.C. he crossed the Indus at Attock with one hundred and twenty thousand men, and marched into the Panjab to Taxilla. The Hindu Chief, Taxilles, at once yielded, and placed his kingdom at the disposal of Alexander. The other chiefs of India were not disposed so to receive this foreign invader. Chief among those was Porus, whose kingdom lay between the Jhelum (Hydaspes), and the Chenab (Acesines). He gathered his forces together, collected a great number of elephants on the eastern bank 327 B.C.

of the Jhelum and awaited the advance of Alexander. The latter, finding it impossible to force a direct passage across the river, had recourse to stratagem. Leaving the main body of his army on the bank, opposite the army of Porus, he led eleven thousand of his veteran troops in the darkness of the night ten miles up the river's bank, and crossed at an undefended part. In the early morning he attacked the enemy. Porus and his army fought long and well, but they had at last to yield to the superior discipline of Alexander's troops. The elephants and other spoil fell into the hands of the conqueror. Porus, too, was compelled to surrender; but Alexander, admiring his valour, restored his kingdom to him, and Porus continued to rule as a faithful ally of his generous conqueror. Alexander crossed the Chenab, and then the Ravee (Hydraotes). There he met a second Porus, but he, unlike the first of that name, fled at the sight of the conqueror, which so disgusted the latter, that he transferred the kingdom to his namesake, who had fought so well at the Jhelum. The Cathael, a people of the Panjab, were next attacked by Alexander, and their city was taken. Onward still he led his men, till he reached the Beas (Hyphasis). The mighty kingdom of Magadha lay in front of him. Its magnificent capital, Patali-putra (*Palibothra*, the modern Patna), a city nine miles in length, was within a few days' march. Sandracottus, an offshoot of the royal house of Magadha, whom he had met at Taxilla, had told him of it and urged him to capture it. Could he advance thither and plant his standards on its battlements, all Hindustan would be at his feet. But a new and unexpected difficulty presented itself. His soldiers, who had been faithful and submissive so long, who had endured such hardships among the snows of the mountains of Kabul, and who had been everready to advance at their General's command, now refused to obey his orders. Worn out with the fatigues of eight campaigns, the

desired to be led home. The conqueror entreated them to advance, but in vain. He flattered and threatened; but menaces and flattery were equally powerless to change the resolution of these men. Nothing was left for Alexander but to turn his back on India. When he reached the Satlej he built a fleet and sailed down the river. On his way he laid the foundation of several cities, the chief of which was Pattala. Sending part of his troops by sea under the charge of his admiral Nearchus, he marched with the remainder back to Persia. Two years later Alexander died from the effects of fever caught in the marshes of Babylon. 325 B.C.

CHAPTER V.

THE KINGDOM OF MAGADHA.

323 B.C. TO 435 A.D.

17. Seleucus.
18. Chandragupta.
19. Megasthenes.

17. Seleucus.—After returning from India to Persia Alexander was occupied with trying to establish a great empire. When he died this fell to pieces. The most eastern portion, including Bactria, was taken possession of by his general Seleucus, who found himself therefore with the Indus as his eastern frontier, and he resolved to complete the conquests begun by his great predecessor Alexander. He invaded India and marched against the kingdom of Magadha. Meanwhile a change had taken place in the dynasty that ruled over that kingdom. At the time of Alexander, the Takshak line of kings was still ruling. Nanda the Rich was king. But, during the confusion consequent on Alexander's invasion and his subsequent withdrawal from India, this Nanda and all his legitimate family were killed by his minister Chanikya.

who afterwards tried to atone for the crime by such severe penance, that the 'remorse of Chanikya' is still an emblem of penitence.

18. **Chandragupta.** — On the death of Nanda, Chandragupta (called by the Greeks Sandracottus) helped by a band of robbers from the Panjab seized Palibothra (Patna), and made himself king. He was an illegitimate son of Nanda, by a barber woman, and was, therefore, a Sudra. He would appear to have been driven from court in his father's time, as we have seen that he was with Alexander at Taxilla, urging him to attack his father's kingdom. With him began the Mauryan line of kings (so called from Murâ, the name of Chandragupta's mother), under whose rule Magadha attained the highest power and influence. We have no details of the war between the invaders under Seleucus, and Chandragupta; but in the end the latter drove the Greeks out of India, and extended the kingdom of Magadha as far as the Indus. Chandragupta is thus said "to have brought the whole world under one umbrella," that is, to have brought the whole of Hindustan under one sovereignty. This is of course an exaggerated way of speaking, as there were many independent states in Hindustan during this time, but the power of Chandragupta was evidently very great. Subsequently, Chandragupta entered into an alliance with Seleucus, married his daughter and received a Greek ambassador, named Megasthenes, at his court. It is to this Megasthenes that we are indebted for most of the information we possess respecting India at this period.

19. **Megasthenes.**—This Greek observer wrote an account of Magadha, portions of which have survived to this day. From it we gather that the social and political institutions of Chandragupta's kingdom were very much what are described in the Code of Manu. The people of

Magadha are described as "brave, honest, and truthful, while slavery was unknown among them."

The revenue of the state was chiefly derived from the land just as it still is in India, but only one-fourth of the produce was taken by the king, three-fourths being left to the cultivator. There were one hundred and eighteen kingdoms subject to the empire of Chandragupta, but these seem to have been little more than cities. A considerable army with elephants and war chariots was always kept ready for the field, but even while war was going on care was taken not to molest the cultivators of the soil. We gather from Megasthenes also that caste was in full operation, that the Brahmans had great political importance and that Buddhism had made little progress. He gives too a picturesque description of Chandragupta's capital Palibothra which he says was twenty-four miles in circuit.

CHAPTER VI.

BUDDHA AND BUDDHISM.

477 B.C.

20. Buddha.
21. The Bo-tree.
22. Gautama's new faith.
23. Buddhism.

20. Buddha.—While the kingdom of Magadha had been growing in power and importance, a new religion opposed to Brahmanism had been spreading in India. This was Buddhism. Its founder was one Gautama Sakya Muni. His father Suddhodana belonged to the Sakyas, an Aryan tribe that had settled at Kapila-Vastu on the banks of the Ruhini (Kohana), about one hundred miles to the north-east of Benares. Suddhodana seems to have belonged to the ruling family of the Sakyas, but was not actually chief of the tribe, so that it is not accurate to represent Buddha as the son of a Raja.

21. The Bo-tree.—Many wonderful stories are told of his birth and childhood. He was married when quite young to the beautiful, lotus-coloured Gopa. In his twenty-ninth year, ten years after his marriage, and while his son, Rahula, was but an infant, he suddenly left wife, child and home and gave himself up entirely to religious and philosophical study. The reason he assigned for this step was that an angel had appeared to him in four visions under the forms of a man broken down by age, of a sick man, of a decaying corpse, and of a hermit. On seeing these visions, he exclaimed, "youth, health and life itself are but transitory dreams: they lead to age and disease, they end in death and corruption." Believing in transmigration, he saw that evils would belong not only to an individual life, but might run on to an eternity in a chain of successive existences. He resolved to betake himself to the forests of Uruvela, near the modern Gaya, and gave himself up to the severest penance, hoping by that means to work out salvation from successive births, and to obtain that peace of mind he longed for. He was reduced to a living skeleton; but he continued as unhappy as ever. He, therefore, ceased to believe in the Brahmanical doctrine that peace and happiness of mind could be secured by self-mortification, and gave up his penance. Finally, while sitting under the shade of a tree at Gaya—henceforth to be known as the Bo-tree, "the tree of wisdom"—after a great mental struggle, he obtained that peace he had been in search of, and found that it was to be gained by self-control and love to others.

22. Gautama's New Faith.—Buddha returned to Benares, and fearlessly preached his new doctrines. Within five months he had sixty followers. Calling them together he told them to go and preach the Buddhist religion to all men without exception.

His next convert was a very important one, Bimbisara, Rajah of Magadha, so that the connection of Buddhism with that state began very early. The new faith continued to spread so that shortly after Buddha's death, which is generally regarded as having taken place in 477 B.C., a council of five hundred members was held at Rajagriha under the presidency of Maha Kasyapa, one of the first members of the order. One hundred years later, a second council consisting of seven hundred members was held at Vaisali. 477 B.C.

23. **Buddhism.**—The Buddhist system was to a large extent a social reform. Its teaching was that of the highest morality. It recognized no system of caste: but declared all men to be equal, and to be equally capable of being saved. "To cease from all sin, to get virtue, to cleanse one's own heart, this is the religion of the Buddhas." To be good in thought, word and deed in this life would lead to a higher life in the next birth. Freedom from a continuous chain of transmigration could be effected only by the uprooting of every desire, passion, and affection, by leading the life of a religious mendicant, and by raising one's mind above all that was worldly. He that could accomplish this would be freed from any further births, and would enter into Nirvana, *i.e.*, would be annihilated, "for the parts and powers of man must be dissolved."

CHAPTER VII.

FURTHER HISTORY OF MAGADHA.

24. Mitra Gupta.
25. Asoka.
26. Buddhism the State Religion.
27. Asoka's successors.

24. **Mitra Gupta.**—The successor of Chandragupta was Mitragupta, under whom the Magadha rule was still further extended. In his time it is said to have embraced

the three Kulingulas, or coasts, *i.e.*, the northern part of the Coromandel coast, and the coasts of Bengal and northern Burma.

25. **Asoka.**—Mitra Gupta was succeeded by his son Asoka, perhaps the greatest name in early Hindu History. He was viceroy at Ujjain during his father's life, and after his death, had to contend for the throne against his brothers, and obtained it in 260 A.D. He made an alliance with Antiochus II. of the family of Seleucus, that one of Alexander's successors who had obtained Syia.

26. **Buddhism the State Religion.**—Perhaps the most noteworthy event of his life took place, however, a year before this alliance, when Asoka, or to call him by his religious title, Priyadasin, openly professed the Buddhist faith, and at a council held at Patna, under his presidency, in B.C. 244, the doctrines of Buddhism and the canon of Buddhist scriptures were fixed, and Buddhism proclaimed the state religion. This proclamation was far from being a merely political act. Asoka was a zealous Buddhist and did his utmost to spread his religion through his dominions. He founded monasteries and built hospitals at his own expense, and published edicts throughout his empire, enjoining on all his subjects observance of the Buddhist doctrines; obedience to parents, kindness to children, mercy to inferior animals; suppression of anger, passion, cruelty or extravagance; generosity, tolerance and charity. These edicts are still to be seen engraved on pillars and rocks throughout the country, and the great distances they are from one another show us how extensive the kingdom of Magadha must have been under Asoka. The pillars are at Delhi, and Allahabad; the rocks near Peshawar, in Gujarat, in Orissa and on the road between

260 B.C. to 225 B.C.

Delhi and Jaipur. Not content with spreading the Buddhist faith in his own kingdom, he sent missionaries into more distant parts of India,—to Chola, Pandya, Kerala and Kashmir—and to other countries, as Bactria and Siam. He sent his brother Mahindo and his sister Sangamitta to Ceylon. By them the king of Ceylon was converted, and thus was laid the foundation of Buddhism in that country.

27. Asoka's successors.—Asoka's successors were likewise Buddhists. Under them the kingdom of Magadha rose to the highest position. A royal road was constructed from Palibothra to the Indus, and another, across the desert of Sindh to Broach, at that time the most commercial city on the west coast. They encouraged learning with the greatest munificence, and sought to disseminate education by means of the vernacular languages. The Mauryan dynasty ended in the year 195 B.C. By that time Buddhism had become the prevailing religion, and had gained more ground than it probably ever held either before or afterwards. 195 B.C.

CHAPTER VIII.

LATER KINGDOMS OF HINDUSTAN.

28. The Sanga Rajas.
29. The Indo-Scythians.
30. Vikramaditya.
31. Kanouj.
32. Other Kingdom

28. The Sanga Rajas.—The Mauryan dynasty was succeeded by the Sanga Rajas. They too were Buddhist, and it was probably during their sway that the many rock-cut cave temples and monasteries found in India, as at Katak, Kach, and Adjanta, were fashioned. The monasteries were called *Viharas*. Hence the name Bihar, so called from the great number of monasteries 195 B.C. to 86 B.C.

that were built in that district. After the Sanga Rajas came the Buddhist kings of the Kanwa dynasty, who ruled Magadha till 31 B.C. Next came the Andra dynasty which is said to have reigned till 436 A.D. Under this dynasty the capital was no longer Palibothra but Warangal in Telingana. The reason of this was probably the incursions of the "Sakas" into Upper India.

29. The Indo-Scythians.—We do not certainly know who these Sakas were. They used the Greek character, as is shown by coins of theirs which have been discovered. They were a people of considerable civilization. The cause of their coming into India appears to have been disturbances among the central Asian States which followed the break up of the kingdom of Seleucus. They are thought to have been of Scythian origin, and have consequently received the name of Indo-Scythians.

Soon after the Christian era they had established a great empire including Afghanistan and northern India as far as Agra and Sindh, the centre of which was Kashmir. The greatest of their rulers was Kanishka. He was a Buddhist, and during his reign, in B.C. 40, a council was held at Kashmir.

30. Vikramaditya.—This was the greatest of the Andra line of kings. He led a confederacy of the people of Central India against the Sakas and utterly defeating them in the battle of Kahror, secured independence for his country. He established the Brahmanic faith, invited learned Brahmans to his kingdom from all parts of India, and rewarded them with rich presents. The most distinguished of those Brahmans was Kalidasa, the author of the famous drama, Sakuntala. In return, the Brahmans have lauded Vikramaditya in the most extravagant way, and ascribed to him the most extraordinary powers. To

78 A.D.

perpetuate his name an era was begun from his reign, and this era is still current throughout all the countries north of the Narbada. According to Hindu chronology he began his reign in 56 B.C. and fought the battle of Kahror in 78 A.D. which is impossible. Perhaps there were several kings of this name, and the conquests of all the others have been assigned to the greatest of them. King Bhoja and other successors of Vikramaditya extended their power over a great part of Central India. Malwa was afterwards conquered by the Raja of Gujarat, but regained its independence, and was finally subdued by the Muhammadans in 1231 A.D.

56 B.C.

31. **Kanouj.**—Of all the ancient Hindu Kingdoms no one has attracted more notice than Kanouj. Its ancient name was Panchala. It is said that a certain Samudra Gupta seized the kingdom of Vikramaditya and transferred its capital to Kanouj, and that he was followed by a dynasty of Guptas that reigned three or four hundred years. The Guptas conquered Magadha and extended their kingdom as far as Orissa. At the beginning of the twelfth century, Kanouj was under a Rajput king, who claimed to be lord paramount of the Rajputs. He quarrelled with the Raja of Delhi, and invited Muhammad Ghori to lead an army against that city. He suffered for his treachery. The Muhammadans after capturing Delhi attacked Kanouj itself. The Raja was defeated and slain, and his capital plundered. The Rajput princes fled into Rajputana or Rajasthan, "the land of the Rajputs or Rajas," and there founded the dynasty of Jodhpur, which is still in existence.

1094 A.D.

32. **Other Kingdoms.**—There were many other kingdoms that played a part in the early history of

Hindustan, and those it will be sufficient only to name. There was Gujarat, Krishna's kingdom—afterwards ruled by the Gehlot family of Rajputs, who, on being driven out of Gujarat by the Persians in 524 B.C., founded the kingdom of Mhairwara which still exists. There were the other Rajput kingdoms of Delhi and Ajmir, and the kingdom of Gaur, under the Pal dynasty and, subsequently, under a line of kings called Sêna; but those kingdoms are of little importance historically. They were overthrown by Muhammad Ghori.

CHAPTER IX.

DECLINE OF BUDDHISM,

195 B.C. TO 1100 A.D.

33. Buddhism and Brahmanism.
34. Chinese Pilgrims.
35. Persecution of Buddhists.

33. Buddhism and Brahmanism.—At the beginning of the Christian era Buddhism had not so many followers as during the rule of the later kings of the Mauryan dynasty. It was still, no doubt, the state religion of Magadha, though probably it ceased to be so under the Andra dynasty. It was also the state religion of the empire of Kanishka. But when Buddhism is said to be the state religion, it is not to be inferred that all the people in the state were Buddhists. This was not the case, and it is even questionable, whether when Buddhism had reached its greatest power, a majority of the people belonged to that faith. At all times there were many followers of the Brahmanic faith in the country, and, about the beginning of the Christian era, there were many powerful kingdoms, notably that of Ujjain, in which Brahmanism was in the ascendant. It must not be

forgotten that men who became Buddhists did not cease to be Hindus. At first, and in fact for many centuries, the Brahmans tolerated Buddhism, perhaps hardly conscious that its doctrines were dangerously opposed to them. In time however the relations of the two religions became less friendly and at last the Buddhists had to endure fierce persecution.

34. **Chinese Pilgrims.**—In 400 A.D. the Chinese, to whom Asoka had sent Buddhist missionaries, and who in large numbers had embraced the Buddhist faith, in their turn sent pilgrims to India, to collect and take back to China revised copies of the Buddhist Scriptures. It is from these pilgrims that we learn the extent to which Buddhism was followed in the fifth and seventh centuries after Christ. The first pilgrim that arrived in India was Fa Hian. He found Buddhist monks and monasteries in all the towns he passed through on his way from Kabul to Pataliputra; but Brahman priests and Hindu temples were scarcely less numerous. The sovereigns of the different kingdoms east of Rajputana were all firmly attached to the law of Buddha. Two centuries later, another pilgrim arrived from China. His name was Hiouen Thsang. He found the great monastery that Kanishka had built at Peshawar deserted; but the people there were still mostly Buddhists. Siladitya was reigning at Kanouj. He was the most powerful monarch in all India at that time, and was known as Maharaja Adhiraj or lord paramount. He was a zealous Buddhist and held a council at Kanouj in 634. He was well read himself in the holy books; but he favoured the Brahmans also, and was tolerant of their religion. In his capital were one hundred Hindu temples as well as one hundred Buddhist monasteries. Kapila Vastu was in ruins, and even in Benares there were only

400 A.D.

629 A.D.

648 A.D.

four monasteries to one hundred Brahmanist temples. In Magadha and Vaisali Buddhism was still flourishing; and fifty monasteries were occupied by one thousand monks. Buddhism seems, however, to have become very corrupt, for of the people at one place Hiouen Thsang visited, he says, they were no better than the "heretics," *i.e.*, the Brahmans among whom they lived.

35. **Persecution of Buddhists.**—From this it appears that Buddhism had fallen very far below the point it stood at in Fa Hian's time. In Magadha, the Panjab and Gujarat it was still in the ascendant. Throughout the rest of India, Buddhism seems to have held its own against Brahmanism only in those states in which it was supported by powerful kings. The corruptions that had crept into it hastened its downfall. A fierce persecution of the Buddhists followed. It is said that at the instigation of Kumarila Bhatta, a learned Brahman, king Sindhanma issued a decree in these words: "Let those who slay not, be slain; the old men among the Buddhists, and the babe, from the bridge of Rama to the snowy mountains." The learned Brahman, Sankara Charyar, who is now held in such veneration, is said to have been the means of extirpating the Buddhists in Telingana, while Khandoba cleared the Mahratta country. The result of all this was that, in the eleventh century after the birth of Christ, the only kings of India that supported the religion of Gautama were the kings of Kashmir and Orissa. In the twelfth century, after the Muhammadans had entered India and conquered Kashmir, there were no Buddhists left except those who joined the Jain sect.

CHAPTER X.

PURANIC PERIOD.

600 A.D. TO 800 A.D.

Revival of Brahmanism.—The Jains.

36. The Brahmans victorious.
37. The Puranas.
38. The Jains.

36. The Brahmans victorious.—The struggle for centuries between the Brahmans and the Buddhists thus ended in the complete triumph of the former, and in the extinction of the latter in India. It would be a great mistake however to think that Buddhism disappeared from India. To a considerable degree it was absorbed into Brahmanism, so that we find many of the Buddhist doctrines in the re-established Brahmanism. Animal sacrifices were abolished. The doctrine of the power of faith and good works to hasten on the progress of final freedom from successive births was adopted. Deliverance by faith is generally associated with the worship of Vishnu; deliverance by good works with the worship of Siva. This deliverance does not secure entrance to *Nirvana* or annihilation, as the Buddhists believed, but *absorption into the godhead.* Popular interest and sympathy for the new religion was secured by a most elaborate and exciting ceremonial. The old triad of the early Aryans was revived in the *Tri-murti*, Brahma, Vishnu and Siva. The popular heroes of the Ramayana and the Mahabharata were traced through the Brahmans, to be the descendants of the sun and the moon, and made objects of worship. Vishnu, the most popular god of the Tri-murti, was said to have appeared in the flesh. Rama and Krishna were accepted as *avatars*, incarnations of Vishnu.

37. The Puranas.—The Puranas, religious books of the Brahmans, written probably about 800 A.D., when Buddhism had become very corrupt, are devoted to the religion of the revival of Brahmanism, and to the interpretation of the beliefs of the various religious sects into which the Hindus are now divided.

38. The Jains.—On the fall of Buddhism, the Jain faith for a short period had a large number of followers. The Jains occupy a middle position between Brahmans and Buddhists. They retain the caste system and acknowledge the gods of the Brahmans, but they deny the divine authority of the Vedas. They are tender to an extraordinary degree of animal life. They worship certain saints, whom they call Tirtankaras; and they regard these as higher than the gods. They do not believe in a Supreme Being, and regard life and matter as eternal. The Jains are divided into two sects—Digambaras, sky-clad, and Swetambaras, white-robed. They are now to be found in small numbers in Gujarat, Mhairwara and Mysore.

CHAPTER XI.

EARLY HISTORY OF THE DECCAN.

39. Early Inhabitants.
40. Pandya.
41. Chola.
42. Other States.
43. Salivahana.

39. Early Inhabitants.—Of the early inhabitants of the Deccan little is known. The traditions and records of the Peninsula all point to a period when the natives were not Hindus. They are spoken of as mountaineers and foresters, or goblins and demons; but the fact that the Tamil language was formed and perfected before the introduction of Sanskrit into this part of the country,

would tend to show that the early inhabitants possessed a high degree of civilization before the Hindu colonists settled in their midst. The most ancient kingdoms were Pandya and Chola, both of which were founded by persons belonging to the agricultural class.

40. **Pandya.**—Pandya was named after its founder, Pandion, and may have flourished as early as the fifth century before Christ. It occupied the districts of Madura and Tinnevelly. The seat of the government was Madura. The wars of the Pandyan kings were chiefly with the kingdom of Chola. Sometimes both kingdoms were united, and again they would become separate states. The line of the Pandyan kings ended with Pandya or Sundara, in the 13th century, when it was succeeded by the Muhammadans, then by a new line of Pandyas, then by the Nayak kings who were conquered by the Nawab of Arcot in 1736. 500 B.C.

41. **Chola.**—The kingdom of Chola was of greater extent than Pandya. It embraced all the Tamil Country, and about the eighth century, its kings ruled over a part of Telingana. Kanchi (Conjeeveram) was the capital. The last raja was overthrown by Venkaji, the brother of the famous Sivaji. He was the founder of the present Tanjore Family.

42. **Other States.**—Many other states existed at different periods. Chera (Travancore and Coimbatore), which was subverted in the tenth century. Kerala (Malabar and Canara), peopled by Brahmans at the beginning of the Christian era, and under their rule till the ninth century, when the people revolted against their prince, who had become a Muhammadan, and the kingdom was broken up into many petty states, the chief of which was that under the Zamorin of Calicut. This state was in

existence when Vasco de Gama landed on the west coast, and the rule of the Zamorin was not finally overthrown till 1766. Telingana, with its capital Warangal, was ruled successively by a branch of the Andra dynasty, by the Chola Rajas and the Ganapati Rajas, until it was merged in the kingdom of Golkonda in 1435.

43. One of the most noted of the Deccan kings was Salivahana. He is said to have been the son of a potter, to have headed an insurrection, and, thereafter, to have ruled at Patna on the Godavari. The era of Salivahana, which is still in use in the Deccan, was named after him.

78 A.D.

Leading Dates of the Hindu Period.

Invasion of Darius Hystaspes	518	B.C.
Death of Buddha	477	„
Invasion of Alexander the Great	327-325	„
Battle at the Jhelum	327	„
The Mauryan Dynasty	315-195	„
Chandragupta	315-291	„
Asoka	260-225	„
Era of Vikramaditya	56	„
Battle of Kahror	78	A.D.
Era of Salivahana	78	„
Fa Hian visits India	400	„
Hiouen Thsang visits India	629-648	„

EARLY MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

RISE OF THE MUHAMMADAN POWER AND THE MUHAMMADAN ARABS IN INDIA.

570 A.D. TO 1001 A.D.

44. Muhammad.
45. Muhammadanism.
46. Muhammadan Conquests.
47. Sindh invaded by the Muhammadans.

44. Muhammad. — The visit of Hiouen Thsang to India took place about half a century after a great event in the history of the world which was to have immense influence on the history of India. This was the birth of Muhammad, which occurred in the year 570 A.D. At that time, as now, Arabia was chiefly inhabited by tribes of nomads who depended for their living on their flocks and herds, and whose principal occupation was warfare and plunder. Their religion seems to have been a form of nature worship, and there were many local shrines and deities. All Arabs, however, were agreed in holding extremely holy the Ka'ba, the shrine of a sacred black stone. This was enclosed in a great temple at Mecca and the guardianship of it was specially entrusted to the tribe of the Koraish. The father of Muhammad was Abdullah, who was head of one of the families of the Koraish. He died before Muhammad was born. When Muhammad was six years old his mother died, and the little boy was handed over to the charge of his uncle Abu-Talib, who treated him as his own son, and through good report and bad report in after years ever befriended him. In his

570 TO 632 A.D.

youth, he accompanied his uncle's camels in the long trading expeditions undertaken at that time by Arab merchants. Naturally of a reflective mind and of a melancholy disposition, the sights he witnessed and the stories he heard when on these journeys, made a lasting impression upon him. In his twenty-fifth year he entered the service of Khadija, a rich widow of Mecca. She soon became fascinated with the handsome bearing and noble features of the youth, and an arrangement was quickly effected by which she became his wife. Muhammad by his marriage was raised to a position of affluence equal to that of the other chiefs of the tribe of Koraish. As he advanced in years his contemplative tendencies increased, and in order that he might indulge the more in meditation and prayer, he frequently retired with his wife to the cave of Mount Hira.

45. **Muhammadanism.**—Dissatisfied with the gross idolatrous worship of his own countrymen at the Ka'ba, equally dissatisfied with Judaism, with its ritual and bleeding sacrifices; and in his journeyings having seen Christianity only in a corrupt form with its followers paying adoration to saints and images, he thought that there was need of reformation, and that the faith of man should be restored to its original purity, which consisted of the worship of the one God. Finally he declared that he was commissioned by God to proclaim this doctrine.

46. **Muhammadan Conquests.**—His first convert was his wife. For the next two years he met with little success. His enemies began to persecute him, and he was finally obliged to flee from Mecca to Medina. The year of his flight is called the Hijra, and from it the
622 Muhammadans make their computations. Until
A.D. the flight to Medina, Muhammad had declared that only persuasion was to be used in furthering

his cause. But now he affirmed he was authorized to employ force, and this, not only to compel conversion, but also to exterminate unbelievers. He moreover declared himself King as well as Prophet of God. In six years he found himself at the head of fifteen hundred armed men, bound to him by mutual vows of fidelity to the death. With these he began his wars against the infidels, that is against all who did not recognise his mission. He was extraordinarily successful and before his death he had reduced all Arabia under his control, and the idea of subduing the world had taken possession of the Muhammadan mind so that after the death of Muhammad his followers continued their conquests. Within six years Egypt was subdued. Northern Africa and Spain were next overrun and within a century after the death of Muhammad the Muhammadans had penetrated into the heart of France.

632 A.D.

We may mention here the course adopted by the Muhammadans when invading a country. On approaching a city they called on the people to embrace the Muslim faith or pay tribute. If they refused, the city was stormed, all the fighting men in it were put to death and their wives sold as slaves. The trading part of the community was unmolested. If the city agreed to pay tribute, the inhabitants were allowed to have all their former privileges, and to enjoy the free exercise of their own religion.

47. Sindh invaded by the Muhammadans.—While the Muhammadans were thus advancing on the west, they were not slothful in the east. Persia was invaded, and its power broken in the great battle of Cadesia. Subsequently, the "victory of victories" gained by the Muhammadans on the plain of Nahavend reduced Persia to tribute or the "Faith." In 664 an Arab force advanced as far as Kabul. Various

636 A.D.

plundering expeditions followed. Early in the eighth century Hajjaj, the Governor of Basra, sent his nephew Muhammad Kasim against Sindh, with the view of making a permanent conquest. The expedition was successful. Sindh for a time was conquered and became tributary, but only for a time. The Mussalman *Arabs* were again driven out of the country by the Rajputs, and the Hindus recovered their lost territory.

711 A.D.

750 A.D.

CHAPTER II.

THE HOUSE OF GHAZNI.

976 A.D. TO 1186 A.D.

The Turks in India.

48. Alptigin.
49. Sabaktigin.
50. Mahmud of Ghazni.
51. His first six invasions of India.
52. Ninth invasion.
53. Tenth invasion.
54. Twelfth invasion.
55. Mahmud's character.
56. End of the House of Ghazni.

48. Alptigin.—In the last chapter it was told how the Muhammadan Arabs tried to establish themselves in India and failed to do so. Two hundred and fifty years after this India was again invaded by Muhammadans, but not the original Muhammadans from Arabia. The successors of Muhammad had established a vast empire the head of which was called the Khalif. From 750 to 1258 A.D. the seat of the Khalifate was Bagdad. The Khalif nominally ruled all Muhammadans. But about 900 A.D. a Muhammadan kingdom was set up in Khorasan and the country south of the Oxus, under a dynasty named Samani. The fifth king of this dynasty was Abdul Malik and he had a Turkman slave named

Alptigin who is said to have been originally employed "to amuse his master by tumbling and tricks of leger-demain." Proving himself to be a man of ability and integrity, Alptigin was raised by his master to be governor of Khorasan, but having incurred the displeasure of the successor of his patron, he was deprived of his government, and, to save his life, fled with his adherents to Ghazni in Kabul, and established a Muhammadan Government there. On his death, Sabaktigin, also originally a Turkman slave but who had risen to be the head of the Government, married the daughter of Alptigin and succeeded to the throne. He was the founder of the House of Ghazni, which it will be observed was a Turkman dynasty ruling a mixed population of Turkmans and Pathans.

49. Sabaktigin—975-996.—Scarcely had Sabaktigin ascended the throne, when Jeipal, Raja of Lahor, advanced with an army against him up the Khaibar pass; but the Hindus interpreting a shower of wind and rain and thunder as an evil omen, forced their Raja to enter into a treaty, whereby he promised to give fifty elephants and a large sum of money to Sabaktigin. Jeipal no sooner found himself safe in his own territory than he refused to send the money; and, calling in the aid of the Rajas of Ajmir, Delhi, Kalinger and Kanouj, he awaited the arrival of Sabaktigin, who advanced to the Indus, to compel him to fulfil his promise. Jeipal and his allies were utterly defeated. The whole country as far as the Indus was taken possession of by Sabaktigin, and a governor was appointed over Peshawar.

50. Mahmud of Ghazni—996-1030.—On the death of Sabaktigin, his son, the celebrated Sultan Mahmud, ascended the throne. Before his death he conquered all Persia and great part of India, but as he never removed the seat of his government from Ghazni, he is always

known in history as Mahmud of Ghazni. Two motives seem to have actuated this man in life,—the glory to be obtained by establishing the Muhammadan faith in new countries, and the desire of amassing immense wealth. For the accomplishment of this double object, he *twelve times* invaded India.

51. **His first six invasions of India.**—The first invasion was directed against Jeipal of Lahor. The
1001 A.D. opposing armies met near Peshawar. Jeipal, having been defeated, resigned his throne in favour of his son Anangpal and ascended the funeral pile. The second expedition was against the Raja of Bhatia; the third, against the chief of Multan. In the fourth expedition the Rajas of Gwalior, Ujjain, Kalinger, Kanouj, Delhi, and Ajmir united their forces to
1008 A.D. oppose him, but in a battle fought near Peshawar, the armies of Mahmud were again successful, and the victory was followed up by the plundering of the rich temple of Nagarkot. The sums of money obtained by Mahmud at this and other temples were enormously great, though no doubt not so great as stated by Ferishta, the Muhammadan historian. In the fifth invasion Multan was taken; and
1010 A.D. in following year, in the sixth expedition, Thaneswar was captured and the temple plundered.

52. **Ninth invasion.**—The ninth expedition into India was on a much larger scale. Collecting an army of a hundred thousand horse and twenty thousand foot, Mahmud resolved to penetrate into the heart of Hindustan. He set out from Peshawar, and, keeping close to the mountains, crossed the Jumna and arrived suddenly at the magnificent and wealthy city of Kanouj. The Raja, taken by surprise and unable to offer resistance, at once

surrendered and secured the friendship of the conqueror. Mahmud next attacked Muttra. When he had plundered the city, broken the idols, and profaned the temples, he returned to Ghazni laden with treasure.

53. **Tenth invasion.**—The tenth expedition was directed against Jeipal II., son of Anangpal. He had opposed Mahmud on his march to Kanouj. His kingdom was now wrested from him and Lahor was annexed to Ghazni. This was the first instance of the Muhammadans establishing themselves permanently east of the Indus, and the date is important, as marking the foundation of the future Muhammadan empire in India. 1022 A.D.

54. **Twelfth invasion.**—The twelfth and most celebrated expedition was against Somnath. The temple of Somnath, situated in Gujarat, was the richest, most frequented, most famous place of worship in all India. If Mahmud could advance thither and pillage and destroy this sacred shrine, in addition to the riches he might obtain, great glory might be gained, and his name be handed down to posterity as one of the greatest scourges of the enemies of "the faith." To reach Somnath, he had to cross a desert three hundred and fifty miles broad. With twenty thousand camels and an immense army Mahmud left Ghazni, and through many difficulties pushed on till he reached the doomed city. The Hindus opposed a determined resistance to the invaders. Again and again were the Muhammadans driven back from the walls, but at length, with a shout and irresistible charge, they rushed in, and temple and gods fell into their hands. Mahmud entered the temple. The Brahmans offered him large sums of money not to destroy the idol. But Mahmud had no greater ambition than to be handed down in history as a "breaker of idols." 1022 A.D.

Somnath, an idol five yards high, was smashed to pieces, and then it is said it was found to be filled with jewels. The real object of worship at Somnath was a cylinder of stone, so the story of the finding of the jewels is probably a fabrication. Mahmud retired to Ghazni the year following, and died there in the year 1030 at the age of sixty-three. Before his death, he is said to have ordered all his riches to be laid out before him, and to have wept that he was so soon to leave them.

1030 A.D.

55. **Mahmud's character.**—Mahmud was the most distinguished warrior of his time. He had all the elements of greatness—prudence, activity, courage—in the very highest degree. His success in arms has gained him the highest military reputation, while the good order that prevailed in his kingdom, notwithstanding his frequent absences from it, proves that he had great talents for government. The founding the University of Ghazni, and the large sums of money he gave to learned men, mark him out as one of the most liberal supporters of literature and arts of any age.

56. **End of the House of Ghazni.**—It is of but little interest to trace the subsequent history of the house of Ghazni. The dynasty continued for the next one hundred and fifty years—a period marked by internecine wars, and much suffering to the people. Bahram, the last of the Ghaznivede dynasty, having put to death Kutb-ud-din, a member of the Ghorian family, under circumstances of the greatest ignominy, Ala-ud-din, brother of the murdered prince, vowed a bitter revenge. [illegible] to Ghazni, he set fire to the city, pulled down all the monuments of the Ghaznivede kings, and put the inhabitants to death. Bahram fled. Ala-ud-din mounted the throne. And when Muhammad Ghori, his nephew,

defeated the grandson of Bahram and captured Lahor, the whole empire was transferred from the House of Ghazni to the House of Ghori. 1186 A.D.

CHAPTER III.

THE HOUSE OF GHORI.

1173 A.D. TO 1206 A.D.

Muhammadan Afghans conquer Hindustan.

57. Dynasty of Ghor.
58. Muhammad Ghori.
59. Dissensions among the Hindus.
60. Muhammad Ghori invades India.
61. Delhi taken.
62. Hindustan conquered.
63. Rajputana.
64. Delhi made the capital.

57. Dynasty of Ghor.—The country that gave birth to the family that overthrew the house of Ghazni was situated in the Hindu Kush. It was called Ghor, from a fort of that name between Ghazni and Herat. The founder of the family was Eiz-ud-din Husain, a man of Afghan origin. His son, Ala-ud-din, as we have seen, drove Bahram from the throne. Ghias-ud-din succeeded Ala-ud-din. He was a weak though amiable prince, and, considering the territory of Ghor sufficient for himself, he handed over to his brother, Shahab-ud-din, the renowned Muhammad Ghori, the throne of Ghazni.

58. Muhammad Ghori—1186-1206.—On the capture of Lahor and the fall of the Ghaznivede dynasty, Muhammad Ghori had no rivals left. But he was not content with the empire he had acquired. Mahmud of Ghazni had invaded India, had thereby amassed immense wealth and gained for himself a glorious name. Muhammad Ghori would follow the example of the great Mahmud,

and add to his power and wealth by invading and if possible conquering Hindustan.

59. Dissensions among the Hindus.—The Hindus were but ill-prepared to meet such an invader. They were divided into two irreconcilable parties, headed respectively by the Rajas of Kanouj and Gujarat and the Raja of Delhi and Ajmir. The jealousies and wars ever arising between those parties, tended to weaken both; and now, when they should have united to oppose the common enemy, the Raja of Kanouj looked on with delight, when he saw the throne of the Raja of Delhi imperilled. The result was, both were utterly overthrown, and Hindustan from the Indus to the Bay of Bengal was conquered by the Muhammadans.

60. Muhammad Ghori invades India.—Muhammad Ghori invaded India for the first time in 1189. He was met in battle by Prithvi, Raja of Delhi and Ajmir, near Thaneswar, where so many battles were afterwards to be fought, and was so completely defeated, that it was with difficulty he made good his escape across the Indus with the mere wreck of his army. But this defeat only made Muhammad Ghori the more resolved to accomplish his great object, the conquest of Hindustan. Enraged at the cowardice his nobles had showed in this battle, he thought that by publicly disgracing them, he would make them more valiant in the future. With this object he ordered bags of barley to be tied round the nobles' necks, and sent them through the streets of Ghazni, compelling them to eat, as they went along, after the manner of donkeys. They were afterwards restored to favour, and another opportunity was given them of recovering their character.

1191 A.D.

61. Delhi taken.—Two years later, Muhammad Ghori again appeared at the head of a large army, composed of

Tartars, Turks and Afghans. Prithvi Raja once more advanced against him. The opposing armies once more met at Thaneswar; but with a very different result. The Hindus were utterly routed. Prithvi Raja and many other chiefs were taken and slain, and the Muhammadan power was firmly established in India. Ajmir fell into the hands of the conqueror. Muhammad Ghori returned to Ghazni, carrying the spoil with him. Kutb-ud-din, who was originally a slave, was left behind as Viceroy, and he followed up his master's victories by taking Mirath and Delhi. The latter town became the seat of the Government. 1193 A.D.

62. **Hindustan conquered.**—Next year Muhammad returned, and advanced on Kanouj. Jaichand, the Raja, had now cause to repent his treachery in holding back while Prithvi and others were fighting for their independence. The combined strength of Delhi and Kanouj might have been sufficient to repel the invaders; but neither of them singly was a match for Muhammad Ghori. Jaichand shared the fate of his relative, the Raja of Delhi. His army was routed at Chadrawar, and he himself slain. The defeat of the Raja of Kanouj opened up the way for the conquest of Bihar and Bengal. Within two years Bakhtiyar Khilji, a slave that had risen to a command in the army, overran the holy land of Magadha and plundered the city of Bihar. The same general entered Bengal, which submitted without a struggle. The capital was changed from Nuddea to Gaur, and remained under the Muhammadans till 1765. Hindu temples were plundered and destroyed all along the valleys of the Jumna and the Ganges, and mosques, palaces, and caravansaries built with the materials. When on an expedition to Khorasan, Muhammad Ghori was cruelly murdered, while asleep in his tent, by a band of Gakkars, a wild tribe living in the mountains in the north 1203 A.D.

of the Panjab. Within a period of little more than ten years he had subdued the whole of Hindustan, with the exception of Malwa, and established a permanent Muhammadan Government there.

1206 A.D.

63. Rajputana.—It was at this time that the Rajput princes, driven from their kingdoms, retired with their followers into that region lying between the Indus and the Chambal, which is known as Rajputana or Rajasthan, the land of the Rajputs or Rajas.

64. Delhi made the capital.—Muhammad left no sons. The kingdom was soon broken up into separate states. Bakhtiyar Khilji laid hold on Bihar and Bengal; while Kutb-ud-din set up his throne at Delhi, and formed Delhi into an independent kingdom. Kutb-ud-din is therefore regarded as the *first* of the line of Muhammadan emperors that reigned there, and the date 1206 should be remembered.

1206 A.D.

CHAPTER IV.

THE SLAVE KINGS.

1206 A.D. TO 1290 A.D.

The Slaves of the Sultans of Ghor.

65. Kutb-ud-din.
66. Altamsh and Chengiz Khan.
67. Rezia.
68. Nazir-ud-din.
69. Balban.

65. Kutb-ud-din—1206-1210.—The life of Kutb-ud-din affords a good example of the manner in which many Turki slaves rose to sovereignty in Asia. He was bought originally by a man of wealth at Inshapur, and, having received from him a good education, was afterwards

presented to Muhammad Ghori. He so distinguished himself in Muhammad's service, that the latter left him in charge of the conquered territories of Delhi and Kanouj, when he himself returned to Ghor. On the death of Muhammad Ghori Kutb-ud-din ascended the throne of Delhi, and after a reign of four years, during which he gained the reputation of being a virtuous and just ruler, he was succeeded by his son, Aram, who was soon dethroned by Altamsh, his brother-in-law.

66. Altamsh—1210-1236—and Chengiz Khan.—It was in this reign that Chengiz Khan, with his Tartar hordes, burst on the Muhammadan kingdoms west of the Indus, and laid waste all the country as far west as the Caspian Sea. These Tartars or Mughals, that were again and again to be the scourge of Europe and Asia, are described "as ugly nomads with yellow complexions, high cheek bones, flat noses, small eyes and large mouths. They were covered with vermin, and their smell was detestable. They plundered towns and villages and carried off women and children to serve as slaves." Altamsh captured Gwalior, that had revolted; took Ujjain and destroyed its celebrated temples erected by Vikramaditya twelve hundred years before; and annexed Malwa to the throne of Delhi. In this reign the *Kutb Minar* was erected or finished near Delhi. It was so named, after Kutb-ud-din, a celebrated Muhammadan saint. It is in the form of a minaret, two hundred and forty-two feet high, and is one of the highest columns in the world. Altamsh died in 1236. His worthless son was deposed after a reign of seven months, and Rezia, sister of the deposed king, raised to the throne with the title of Sultan.

67. Rezia—1236-1239.—Rezia was a woman of considerable talents for business, and for a time she ruled well, introducing many salutary reforms into the internal

government of the kingdom. She showed a great partiality, however, for one of her slaves. This irritated the nobles, who rose in revolt and took her prisoner. She was given in charge to Altunia, the leader of the conspiracy, and he afterwards married her. In an attempt to regain the throne, Rezia was taken prisoner and put to death along with her husband. The two following reigns occupy six years, after which Nazir-ud-din, grandson of Altamsh, who had been long kept in confinement, ascended the throne.

68. **Nazir-ud-din — 1245 — 1266.** — Nazir-ud-din selected Ghias-ud-din Balban, a Turki slave, as his prime minister; he proved himself to be one of the ablest statesmen of the time. Under his administration Ghazni was annexed to the throne of Delhi, and the other Hindu states were reduced to a complete state of subjection. The private life of Nazir-ud-din was that of a hermit. His personal expenses were met from the sale of books which he copied with his own hands. His meals were cooked by his wife, and though she complained that she burnt her fingers in cooking, he refused to allow her a servant. He was a great patron of Persian literature.

69. **Balban—1266-1287.**—On the death of Nazir-ud-din, Balban, who was already in possession of all the powers of king, ascended the throne. The only serious rebellion he had to encounter was that of Tughral, Governor of Bengal. Against this rebel he marched in person, and having utterly defeated him, put him and every member of his family to the sword. In another expedition against Mewat, Balban put a large number of persons to death. Though excessively cruel, he has gained the reputation of being a liberal and enlightened monarch. Many of the princes of those kingdoms west of the Indus, whose territories had been overrun by the Mughals, fled

to his court, and were received and entertained by him. At one time he had as many as fifteen princes depending on his bounty. Many learned men came in attendance on these princes; and as Balban's son Muhammad was exceeding fond of literature, they too had a ready welcome given them.

The Mughals again crossed the Indus. Prince Muhammad was sent with an army against them. He gained a complete victory, but was himself slain. Balban, who was now in his eightieth year, was so affected by the news of his son's death that he is said to have died of a broken heart.

Balban's successor, Kaik-u-bad, was a youth solely addicted to pleasure. A contest for power arose between the Tartar mercenaries who had become converts to the Muslim faith, and who possessed considerable political power at Delhi, and the chiefs of the Khilji tribe. The Tartars were defeated. Kaik-u-bad, the young king, was assassinated, and Jalal-ud-din, chief of the family of Khilji, ascended the throne.

CHAPTER V.

THE HOUSE OF KHILJI.

1209 A.D. TO 1320 A.D.

70. The Khiljis.
71. Jalal-ud-din.
72. First invasion of the Deccan by the Muhammadans.
73. Ala-ud-din.
74. Rajputana invaded.
75. Maharashtra subdued.
76. South India overrun.
77. Death of Ala-ud-din.
78. Mubarak.
79. Khusrau Khan.

70. The Khiljis.—The Khiljis were a Tartar family that had settled in Afghanistan. From an early time

they seem to have been closely connected with the Afghans; so much so, that they afterwards came to be regarded as *Afghans* or *Pathans*.

71. Jalal-ud-din — 1290–1295. — Jalal-ud-din was seventy years of age when he assumed the reigns of government. He almost immediately put to death the infant son of the late king. This, however, was the only act of cruelty committed by him during his reign. He went, indeed, to the other extreme, in being too lenient to his personal enemies and to the enemies of the State. The result was that the authority of his government was weakened and that crime increased throughout the country. His reign, however, is a memorable one, for in it took place the first of those expeditions by which the Deccan was finally rendered subject to the Muhammadan arms.

72. First invasion of the Deccan.—Ala-ud-din, nephew of Jalal-ud-din and Governor of Korah and Oudh, resolved to invade the Deccan. He was a man of great vigour and ability, but thoroughly unscrupulous. At the head of eight thousand men he marched south, and suddenly presented himself before the walls of Deogiri (*Daulatabad*), the capital of Ramdeo, Raja of Maharashtra. The Raja was quite unprepared to meet so sudden an attack, and, Ala-ud-din, having given out that his force was only the advance guard of a mighty army led by the king in person, Ramdeo was glad to make peace by paying an enormous tribute, and Ala-ud-din returned, laden with money and jewels. Elichpur and its dependencies were likewise given up to the king of Delhi. When Jalal-ud-din heard of the success of Ala-ud-din, who had set out on this expedition without his permission, he went to meet him to receive the plunder. His nephew induced him to come and have an interview with him alone, and while the old

1294 A.D.

man was clasping Ala-ud-din's hand and speaking words of love and tenderness to him, he was stabbed by assassins who had been concealed for the purpose.

73. Ala-ud-din.—1295-1316.—Ala-ud-din advanced to Delhi and put the two young sons of Jalal-ud-din to death. His government was very different from that of his predecessor. A man of iron will and great energy, he quickly put down the rebellions that arose in the early part of his reign. Two years after he ascended the throne he led his army against Gujarat, whose Raja had asserted his independence, and subdued it. Again and again he had to encounter the Mughals, who, on one occasion, advanced even as far as Delhi. 1297 A.D.

74. Rajputana invaded.—Ala-ud-din next turned his attention to Rajputana. He had already practically gone round it. He had passed its eastern border on his way to Deogiri. He had subdued the land west of it when he conquered Gujarat, and on the north he had more than once driven back the Mughals. But into the heart of Rajputana he had not yet ventured. Now he resolved to do so. To this land the Rajput princes had retired on the overthrow of their kingdoms by Muhammad Ghori, and had there formed a kind of feudal suzerainty, having one supreme chieftain, called the Maharaja Adhiraj, whom all the other Rajas had to assist in war when called on to do so. A prince of Kanouj had founded a state in Mhairwara. Another, a prince of Ayodhya, had founded a state at Chitor. At this time the Raja of Chitor was the acknowledged suzerain of all the Rajput princes, as at the present day his descendant, the Rana of Udaipur, is the acknowledged head of the Hindus. Chitor was in the centre of Rajputana. Thither Ala-ud-din led his troops. But he 1303 A.D.

met with a resistance, such as he had not experienced from the weaker Hindus of the south, and which, from the self-devotion of the Rajputs, has rendered the Siege of Chitor remarkable in history. When the Rajputs could no longer hold out, the ladies of the nobles and the queen, rather than be exposed to the violence of the invaders, mounted the funeral pile, performing the terrible rite known as *johur*. The men, rushing out against the enemy sword in hand, perished almost to a man. The few that escaped fled to the Aravali Hills.

75. **Maharashtra subdued.**—These disturbances in Hindustan had prevented Ala-ud-din from making further incursions into the Deccan. But in 1306 an army was assembled under Malik Kafur, a slave captured at the siege of Gujarat. With this army, Malik Kafur overran the Maharatta country, took Deogiri and forced the king to yield submission to the throne of Delhi. In this expedition, Dewal Devi, daughter of the Raja of Gujarat, was captured and taken to Delhi. Khizr Khan, the king's eldest son, was so captivated with her beauty, that he married her—an interesting fact, as showing that even at this early time intermarriages took place between the Muhammadans and the Hindus.

76. **South India overrun.**—Three years later Kafur led an expedition into Telingana; captured Warangal, the capital; and condemned the Raja to pay permanent tribute. The next expedition was directed against Karnata, which was under the Bellal family. After a great battle, Dwara Samudra, the capital, was taken and the Raja made prisoner. The invaders continued their advance on the Coromandel Coast as far as Ramesvaram, where Kafur erected a mosque in memory of his victories. He then returned to Delhi, laden with riches, the plunder of the Deccan.

1306 A.D.

1311 A.D.

77. **Death of Ala-ud-din.**—By this time Ala-ud-din had fallen into ill-health and become very irritable and suspicious. Some of his Mughal converts having entered into a conspiracy against him, he put no fewer than fifteen thousand of them to death. Rebellions broke out in different parts of his kingdom. Gujarat revolted. Hamir, son of the late Raja, recovered Chitor. Insurrections broke out in the Deccan. While matters stood thus the king died—probably was poisoned. The unprincipled Kafur immediately put out the eyes of the two eldest sons of the late king and tried to murder the third. A terrible retribution awaited him. Within thirty-five days after Kafur had seized the government, he fell by the hands of an assassin.

78. **Mubarak—1316-1320.**—Mubarak, the third son, was then placed on the throne, and showed his ingratitude to the two officers who had been instrumental in raising him to power, by putting them both to death. His cruel character was further seen in his depriving his infant brother of sight; and when he had marched into the Deccan and captured the rebel, Harpal, he ordered him to be flayed alive. The following years of Mubarak's life were spent in the most shameless and odious debauchery. The government was entrusted to a favourite slave, Khusrau Khan by name, who had no sooner strengthened himself by appointing creatures of his own to the most important offices of the state than he murdered his master, and took possession of the vacant throne.

79. **Khusrau Khan.** — This Khusrau Khan was a Hindu convert of the lowest caste, and though he was proclaimed Sultan, under a Muhammadan name, he seems still to have favoured the Hindus. All the adherents of the old Muhammadan dynasty were massacred. Hindu idols were set up in 1320 A.D.

the mosques, and the princess, Dewal Devi, was taken into his own harem. Had he been a man of high caste, and been able to gather around him the Hindu chiefs, the Muhammadan power might have been imperilled. But the Hindu nobles could have no sympathy with a man of his low birth; and when Ghazi Khan Taghlak, Governor of the Panjab, marched on Delhi with his soldiers trained in the wars against the Mughals, he soon routed the disorderly rabble that surrounded Khusrau, put the usurper to death, and ascended the throne under the title of Ghias-ud-din, the first of the Taghlak dynasty.

CHAPTER VI.

THE TAGHLAK DYNASTY.

1320 A.D. TO 1414 A.D.

80. Ghias-ud-din.
81. Muhammad Taghlak.
82. Paper money.
83. Revolts.
84. Firuz Shah.
85. Anarchy, Tamerlane.

80. Ghias-ud-din Taghlak Shah — 1320-1325.— Ghias-ud-din Taghlak was the son of a Turkman slave. He set up his court at Taghlakabad, a strong fort a few miles from Delhi, and not at Delhi itself. This is a fact that ought to be remembered, for it would seem to show that the Hindu parties in Delhi were still powerful, and that the Turk had begun to fear the Hindu. The four years during which Ghias-ud-din Taghlak occupied the throne, were spent by him in restoring order in the internal administration of the country. On his return from Bengal, whither he had gone to settle disturbances that had arisen in that province, his son, Ulugh Khan, whom he had left as Viceroy during his absence, received him most royally in a wooden palace erected for the

occasion. Whether it was an accident or not, most probably the latter, no sooner had Ulugh Khan retired from the building than it fell, and both his father and younger brother perished.

81. **Muhammad Taghlak — 1325-1351.**— Ulugh Khan ascended the throne under the title of Muhammad Bin Taghlak. The character of this man has been described as a compound of the highest virtues, and the grossest and most horrible vices. He was the most eloquent and accomplished prince of his time, regular in his devotions and temperate in his living, a liberal supporter of learning, and in war a brave and gallant soldier. Many of his actions seem to show, however, that he was quite indifferent to any suffering he might cause, and utterly careless of his subjects' lives. The most favourable view of his character is that he was utterly without common sense, and that when his mad projects failed the remedies he hit on were still madder. For instance, having reduced the Deccan he next formed the scheme of conquering the world. An army of one hundred thousand men was sent through the passes of the Himalayas against China, but only a few returned to tell of their defeat and sufferings. To remedy this disaster Muhammad Taghlak punished the troops who had been left behind in reserve. The Mughals appeared again in India during this reign, and Muhammad Taghlak bought them off with the treasures carried to Delhi by Ala-ud-din.

82. **Paper money.** — The cost of the expedition to China and the large bribes given to the Mughals emptied the treasury. Muhammad Taghlak had heard that the Chinese used paper money. He resolved to do the same. Copper counters were struck, and the people were ordered to receive them as gold money. Export trade for a short time increased to an enormous extent. Merchants were

delighted to pay for their goods in base copper counters and sell them for gold in other lands; but no merchant would carry his goods to India. Consequently, after a time, trade was paralysed and the country ruined. Tribute was paid in copper, and almost every house soon became a mint for issuing false counters. Loads and loads of counters were taken to Taghlakabad, and in the treasury there, was neither gold nor silver to give in exchange for them. Muhammad Taghlak's position was worse than ever. His demands on the people became greater and greater, till in despair the ryots left their rice-fields and took refuge in the jungles, where they lived by rapine. Muhammad Taghlak took a terrible revenge. Ordering out his army, as if for a hunt, he surrounded a large extent of country, and then driving all the people within this circle towards the centre, he ordered them to be slaughtered. Again and again this species of hunt was indulged in. Famine followed, and by way of remedy all the inhabitants of Delhi were ordered to remove to Deogiri. It was a long journey. Deogiri lay more than seven hundred miles away. The unfortunate people had to cross mountains, ford rivers, and penetrate through jungles on their way thither. Worn out with fatigue and famine they died off in thousands, and the few that arrived at Deogiri were reduced to such misery that at last Muhammad allowed the survivors to return to their old homes.

83. **Revolts.**—Revolts burst out in different parts of the empire. Bengal took up arms and gained its
1340 independence. The country on the Coromandel
A.D. Coast followed in 1347 with similar success. Two independent principalities were established there, the powerful Hindu kingdom of Vijianagar and the Bahmini kingdom. Muhammad died at Tatta in 1351, "leaving the reputation of being one of the most accom-

plished princes and most infamous tyrants that ever adorned or disgraced human nature."

84. **Firuz Shah—1351-1388.**—Firuz Shah, nephew of the late king, succeeded. His reign was on the whole a peaceful one, and is best remembered in connection with the construction of public works. Chief among these was the canal between the Jumna and the Kaggar, two hundred miles of which have since been restored by the British Government.

85. **Anarchy, Tamerlane.**—On the death of Firuz, anarchy broke out anew and the land was deluged with blood. Within the next ten years no fewer than four kings occupied the throne. Gujarat, Malwa, Khandesh and Jaunpur threw off the yoke of Delhi, and Delhi itself was torn by factions. While the country was in this state of confusion, the Mughals, under the command of Timur (Tamerlane), entered India by Kabul. Timur marched onwards, massacring the inhabitants as he advanced. On one occasion, no fewer than one hundred thousand prisoners were put to death, as he found it inconvenient to have to feed so many. Delhi was reached and captured, and the inhabitants were put to the sword. But permanent conquest was not Timur's ambition. He returned by Mirath, leaving the country in a state of anarchy, famine and pestilence. The last of the Taghlak dynasty was Mahmud. He died in 1412.

1399 A.D.

CHAPTER VII.

THE SAYYID AND LODI DYNASTIES.

1414 A.D. TO 1526 A.D.

86. Khizr Khan.
87. Muhammad.
88. Ala-ud-din.
89. Extent of the kingdom of Delhi.
90. Buhlol Lodi.
91. Ibrahim.

86. Khizr Khan—1414-1421.—Khizr Khan, a descendant of the Prophet and a native of India, was governor of Multan. In 1414 he assumed authority at Delhi and affected to reign in the name of Timur. As a descendant of Muhammad he was a Sayyid, and hence he is known as the first of the Sayyid dynasty. He united his own principality of the Punjab with Delhi, but was unable to subdue any of the states that had revolted and asserted their independence.

87. Muhammad—1433-1440.—During the reign of Muhammad, the third of this dynasty, the Sultan of Jaunpur seized some of the territory of Delhi, and the king of Malwa attacked the capital itself.

88. Ala-ud-din — 1440-1450. — Ala-ud-din, the son of Muhammad, was a very weak prince, and, during his reign, the kingdom of Delhi was still further reduced. In 1450 Ala-ud-din retired on a pension to Budaon, and Buhlol Lodi, the first of the Lodi dynasty, ascended the throne.

89. Extent of the kingdom of Delhi.—In the earlier part of the reign of Muhammad Taghlak, the kingdom of Delhi extended to the Himalayas in the north and from the Indus to the Bay of Bengal, and included all the Coromandel coast, except Orissa, as far west as a line

roughly drawn from Bombay to Rameswaram. Within little more than a century, this extensive kingdom was so broken up by the misrule of its emperors, and consequent revolts of its subjects, that at the end of the Sayyid dynasty, all that remained of it was the town of Delhi and a few miles of territory around it.

90. Buhlol Lodi—1450-1488.—Buhlol Lodi was a man of a different stamp from the later kings of the Sayyid dynasty. The great object of his reign was to extend his kingdom and restore Delhi to something like its former pre-eminence. Jaunpur had become the rival of Delhi, and between these two states a struggle for supremacy was carried on for thirty-six years with varying success. Delhi finally proved the stronger. "The king of the East," as the ruler of Jaunpur was called, was forced to fly into Bengal, and his kingdom was annexed. On the death of Buhlol Lodi the kingdom of Delhi extended from the Punjab to Bengal. In the next reign, Bihar was recovered.

91. Ibrahim—1517-1526.—Ibrahim, the last of the Lodi line, succeeded. He alienated the nobles by his cruelties and haughty bearing. Bihar rose in revolt and gained its independence. Daulat Lodi, the Governor of the Punjab, took up arms; and having asked Babar and his Mughals to come to his assistance, they invaded Hindustan. The opposing armies met at Panipat, 1526. Ibrahim was defeated and slain. The Afghan rule in India for a time was at an end, and its place was taken by that of the Mughals.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE DECCAN DURING THE EARLY MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

1350 A.D. TO 1565 A.D.

92. Early Afghan conquests.
93. Rise of the Bahmini kingdom.
94. Rise of Vijianagar.
95. Dera Raj.
96. Tirmal Raj.
97. Fall of Vijianagar.

92. Early Afghan Conquests.—At the time of the earliest Muhammadan invasions, the Deccan and the Southern Peninsula were divided into several states. Ramdeo, the first Mahratta prince we read of, was ruling at Deogiri; the Andra dynasty at Warangal in Telingana; while further south, the Bellal Rajas carried on their government at Dwara Samudra in Mysore. We have seen how Ala-ud-din Khilji, at the head of eight thousand cavalry, suddenly presented himself before Deogiri, and compelled Ramdeo to pay him tribute, and to give up to Delhi the territory of Ilichpur; how Malik Kafur, during the same reign, again and again led his armies southwards, plundering, and destroying the temples, until he had overrun the whole country as far south as Rameswaram; how Kafur overthrew the Bellal Rajas and took their capital; how he compelled Warangal to become tributary, and how, when Muhammad Taghlak ascended the throne, almost all Southern India was under the Muhammadan power. From the reign of Muhammad Taghlak two very powerful states date their origin. The one was the Muhammadan Bahmini kingdom, the other, the powerful Hindu kingdom of Vijianagar.

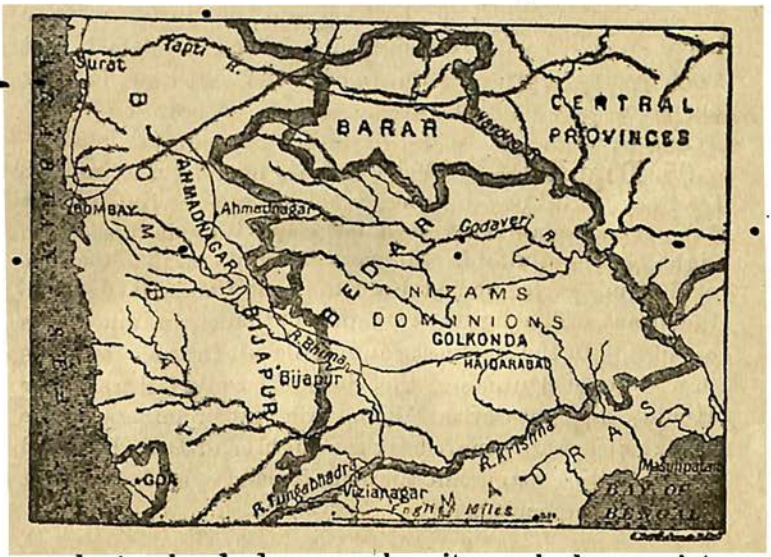
1294 A.D.

1306 A.D. to 1312 A.D.

93. Rise of the Bahmini Kingdom.—The founder of this kingdom was Najar Khan, an Afghan, the slave of

a Brahman called Gangu. Putting himself at the head of some rebels that had fled from Gujarat to the Deccan, he set up a separate independent kingdom at Kalbarga, and assumed the title of Sultan Ala-ud-din Hasan Gangu Bahmini. The latter two names he adopted out of gratitude to his old master. The Bahmini kingdom lasted for

1347 A.D. to 1526 A.D.



nearly two hundred years, when it was broken up into five separate kingdoms with independent Sultans. These were Bedar in the centre, Barar and Ahmadnagar on the north, and Bijapur and Golkonda on the south.

94. Rise of Vijianagar.—On the capture of Warangal by the Muhammadans many of the Hindus fled from the place, and founded a town on the Tungabhadra and called it Vijianagar. The city grew to such an extent during the next century that it was twenty-four miles in circumference,

1336 A.D. to 1565 A.D.

and its ruins are still of great interest. The Raja of Vijianagar, Krishna Raj, having refused to acknowledge himself a vassal of the Sultan of Kalbarga, the latter vowed he would not rest till he had put to death thousands of the infidels (Hindus). He invaded the country and put man, woman, and child to the sword. Krishna Raj, on the entreaty of the Brahmans who said he had offended the gods, at last yielded, and both he and the Sultan were so horror-stricken with the sight of so much bloodshed, that they resolved for the future that none but the fighting men should be slain in war.

95. **Dera Raj.**—In 1400 Dera Raj invaded the Sultan's territory. But one evening, when he was giving a great dancing entertainment in a large pavilion in his camp, eight of the Sultan's followers entered in the disguise of dancing girls, and stabbed the son of the Maharaja to the heart. The lights were put out and the murderers escaped. In the darkness, and while all in the camp was in a state of confusion, the Sultan's army fell upon the Hindus and massacred them in great numbers. The Sultan afterwards married the daughter of Dera Raj, and the festivities attendant thereon, formed one of the great events of the period.

96. **Tirmal Raj.**—On the dismemberment of the Bahmini kingdom, and the consequent comparative weakness of each of the separate states into which it was divided, the power of Vijianagar increased. The Sultans fought amongst themselves, and Vijianagar was called in to assist the one side against the other. Nothing could be more pleasing to the Hindus than this. With their strong religious animosity and national antipathy to the Afghans, how the Hindus must have gloried in seeing Muhammadan killing Muhammadan, and how readily must they have joined in assisting in their destruction!

When the mad Tirmal was Maharaja, the Muhammadans were admitted into the capital to help him against his own subjects who had rebelled against him, and he himself became the vassal of the Sultan of Bijapur. This exasperated the nobles. Headed by Ram Raj they prevailed on Tirmal to bribe the Muhammadans to leave the country, and then they marched to Vijianagar. Tirmal committed suicide, and Ram Raj mounted the throne.

97. **Fall of Vijianagar.**—The Sultans discovered their folly. They saw that if they were to be a permanent power in Southern India, they must unite, and put an end for ever to the Hindu kingdom. The decisive battle was fought at Talikota. The Maharaja was slain, and Vijianagar, the metropolis of the last of the Hindu empires, was taken and plundered. The empire of Vijianagar fell to pieces. Many of the princes that held their estates from Vijianagar on military tenure declared themselves independent, and many petty Hindu principalities were set up under petty princes, who had been commanders in the army, and who, subsequently, became zemindars or poligars. The brother of Ram Raj settled at Chandragiri, and it was from him the English received a grant of the site of Madras in 1639.

1565 A.D.

CHAPTER IX.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PORTUGUESE SETTLEMENTS IN INDIA.

98. Early voyages.
99. The Nayars.
100. Vasco de Gama.
101. Alvarez Cabral.
102. Alphonso Albuquerque.
103. Defence of Diu.
104. Decline of the Portuguese power.

98. Early voyages.—While the Peninsula was in this distracted condition, the Portuguese landed on the Malabar coast. At the end of the fifteenth century the nations of western Europe were strongly actuated by a desire for maritime enterprise, and especially by a desire to find out a way to India by sea. For centuries all goods passing from India to Europe had to be conveyed by the Red Sea, through Egypt to Alexandria and shipped thence to Venice or Genoa. The trade was entirely in the hands of Arab Muhammadans, who were known as Moors, and the Sultan of Egypt realized a large revenue from the transit duties on the goods that passed through his country. If another route to India could be discovered, the nations in the west of Europe might be enriched by trading with the east. Fleet after
1492 A.D. fleet was, therefore, got ready for sea. The Spaniards sent a fleet under Columbus, who sailed west until he reached the islands of the New World, now known as the West Indies. Some years before, Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese, had sailed with a small fleet round the south of Africa, and from
1487 A.D. the tempestuous weather he had experienced, had called the most southern part of that continent the "Cape of Storms." But the King of Portugal, hopeful of finding a passage to India by that route, gave the newly discovered cape the name of the Cape of Good Hope. Ten years elapsed before the

Portuguese took advantage of the discovery they had made. In July 1497 a fleet of three ships under the command of Vasco de Gama set sail from Lisbon, and having doubled the Cape of Good Hope, anchored off Calicut on the 28th May 1498, sixty-seven years before the battle of Talikota. 1497 A.D.

99. The Nayars.—The people on the western coast were very different from those living on the plateau of the Deccan; and separated from the Deccan by the Ghats, they seem to have known but little of the civil and internecine wars that were raging east of those mountains. They were a dark-complexioned race, and were more or less under the Brahmans. They were called Nayars, and they occupied much the same position relatively to the agriculturists amongst whom they lived, as the Rajputs did to the ryots in northern India. The country was divided among twelve petty Rajas, known as the twelve kings of Malabar, and these held their land on feudal tenure from the Zamorin of Calicut who was head over all.

100. Vasco de Gama.—To the Zamorin of Calicut, Vasco de Gama sent a message announcing his arrival as an ambassador from the King of Portugal. The Zamorin at first received him very favourably; but the Moors, seeing that the monopoly of the trade which they had so long enjoyed would be taken away from them, if the Portuguese were to get a footing in the land, represented to the Zamorin that Vasco de Gama was not an ambassador from a king, but a pirate chief, who, having with his crew been driven out of European waters, had come into Asia to carry on his depredations there. The Zamorin had given Vasco de Gama a house for his goods, and the goods had been landed, but now—so much influence did the Moors possess—the men placed in

charge of the merchandise could neither buy nor sell, and when they made representations to the Zamorin, they soon found themselves prisoners. Vasco de Gama, in 1499 A.D. turn, seized several Nayars and retained them as prisoners till his men were released. When this was done, Vasco de Gama returned the principal captives; but detained the rest and took them back with him to Portugal, which he reached in 1499.

101. Alvarez Cabral.—The success of Vasco de Gama inspired the Portuguese with the utmost enthusiasm. No time was lost in equipping another fleet sufficiently strong to maintain supremacy in all the eastern seas, and Alvarez Cabral, a distinguished admiral, was appointed to the command. The fleet arrived off Calicut, and again the Zamorin at first received the Portuguese graciously and even allowed them to build a factory. But the Moors were as hostile as ever, and, while they had no difficulty in securing cargo for their ships, Cabral could neither buy nor sell in Calicut. Enraged at this, and having made representations to the Zamorin without avail, Cabral seized one of the ships of the Moors that had just been filled with rich merchandise, and transferred its valuable contents to his own vessels. This was just what the Moors had wanted. Vasco de Gama had carried off as prisoners several of the inhabitants; Cabral had seized one of the ships of the Moors and taken its cargo. What further evidence did the Zamorin and the Nayars in Calicut require to prove that these foreigners were pirates? The whole town was soon up in arms. The factory was attacked and taken; fifty of the Portuguese were slain; and the booty was divided, the Zamorin receiving his share. Cabral took his revenge. He seized several of the Moorish ships in the harbour, transferred their cargoes to his own ships, made the crews prisoners, set fire to Calicut in several places and then sailed for Cochin. The Raja of

Cochin, who had a hereditary feud with the Zamorin, thought those strangers would be useful allies in assisting him to free himself from his vassalage. 1501 A.D.
Cabral accordingly received a hearty welcome. An agreement was entered into by which the Portuguese were allowed to erect a fort at Cochin, and they had no difficulty in securing cargo. After visiting Cannanore, Cabral returned to Portugal in 1501.

102. **Alphonso Albuquerque — 1506–1519.**—Other expeditions followed. One of these, commanded by Francisco Almeyda, with the title of Viceroy of India, sailed from Portugal in 1505. But the real founder of the Portuguese supremacy in the east was Alphonso Albuquerque, who succeeded Almeyda as Viceroy. He perceived, that to maintain a permanent footing, it would be necessary for the Portuguese not only to have factories in the towns on the coast, but to have a city and territory of their own, where they might 1506 A.D.
establish a capital and safely moor their ships. He therefore attacked Calicut, but the Portuguese after suffering great loss had to withdraw. The town of Goa, situated on a fertile island twenty-three miles in circumference, next attracted Albuquerque's attention. The Sultan of that place was absent on a war expedition. If Albuquerque could capture Goa, he would have a secure station for his fleet and would obtain a centre from which he might extend his conquests. Goa 1510 A.D.
fell into his hands, and he immediately proceeded to fortify it in the strongest way. Albuquerque then began to realize his dreams of conquest, and within a few years established the Portuguese supremacy on the seas from Ormaz to the Moluccas. In 1515 1515
Albuquerque was deprived of his office by his 1519 A.D.
ungrateful sovereign and died when approaching Goa. Before his death the Portuguese

conquests had reached their utmost limits, and few events of importance mark the subsequent annals of that people in the east. The policy of building forts, first adopted at Cochin, was followed. One fort was built at Bassein, another at Diu, others in the Konkan, others at Mangalore and Onore, while another was built on the Hugli.

103. Defence of Diu.—The Portuguese thus absorbed the whole trade in the East, and as the merchandise was conveyed round the Cape of Good Hope and not as formerly through Egypt, the revenue of the Sultan of that country suffered greatly. On two occasions a fleet was sent from Suez to put down the Portuguese. On the second occasion the Turks were joined by the Sultan of Gujarat, and Diu was attacked. The combined armies numbered twenty-seven thousand men. The Portuguese were only six hundred strong. The Portuguese displayed
1538 A.D. the utmost bravery, the women vying with the men in courage and enthusiasm. While the men were engaging the enemy, the women employed themselves in repairing the walls that were shattered by the enemies' cannon. But each succeeding attack reduced their number. At last, when only forty men were left capable of bearing arms, and the garrison was reduced to such extremities that they were on the point of surrendering, to their intense joy they saw the Sultan's fleet sail away for Egypt.

104. Decline of the Portuguese power.—From the close of the sixteenth century the power of the Portuguese declined. The Dutch freed themselves from the yoke of Spain and soon became the first naval power in Europe. Despatching a fleet into the eastern seas they took the Moluccas and established their supremacy there. Persia seized Ormaz. Shah Jahan utterly overthrew the power of the Portuguese in Bengal; while on the west coast they were forced to pay tribute to the Mahrattas in 1662.

And when they lost Bassein in 1739, their power was effectually crippled in India. The only places in India now belonging to Portugal are Goa, Diu, and Daman.

Leading Dates of the Early Muhammadan Period.

Sindh conquered by the Arabs	711	A.D.
Sindh recovered by the Rajputs	750	„
Sabaktigin, founder of the House of Ghazni	975	„
Mahmud of Ghazni	996–1030	„
Mahmud's first expedition into India	1001	„
Lahor annexed to Ghazni	1022	„
Somnath plundered (twelfth expedition)	1024	„
First battle of Thaneswar	1191	„
Second battle of Thaneswar	1193	„
Bengal subdued by Muhammad Ghori.	1203	„
Sultan Rezia	1236–1239	„
First invasion of the Deccan	1294	„
Ala-ud-din attacks Rajputana	1303	„
The south of the Peninsula conquered.	1309–1311	„
Kingdom of Vijianagar	1336–1565	„
The Bahmini Kingdom	1347–1526	„
Timur invades India	1399	„
Bartholomew Diaz doubles the Cape of Good Hope	1487	„
Vasco de Gama arrives at Calicut	1498	„
Albuquerque takes Goa	1510	„
Death of Albuquerque	1519	„
First battle of Panipat	1526	„
Diu attacked by the Turks	1538	„
Battle of Talikota	1565	„
Madras granted to the English	1639	„

THE MUGHAL PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

RISE OF THE MUGHAL EMPIRE—BABAR AND HUMAYUN.

1526 A.D. TO 1540 A.D.

105. Babar.
106. Indian kingdoms.
107. Religious differences.
108. Babar's conquests.
109. Babar's character.
110. Humayun.
111. Sher Shah.

105. Babar—1526-1530.—Babar, the founder of the Mughal Empire in India, was a lineal descendant of Timur and Chenghiz Khan. He was born in 1482. When only twelve years of age he inherited the kingdom of Khokan. He subsequently took Kabul and founded a kingdom in Afghanistan. For years Babar kept his eyes fixed steadily on India, watching for an opportunity to pounce upon it and make it his prey. A fitting time at length came. In 1525 a feeble monarch sat on the throne of Delhi. Daulat Lodi, the governor of the Punjab, asked Babar to come to his assistance against the Emperor; while the Rana of Chitor promised that if Babar would attack Delhi, he would attack Agra. The invitation was accepted, and by the victory at Panipat Babar came into possession of Delhi. The Rana of Chitor expected that Babar, like his ancestors, would retire with the immense booty he had obtained, and the way would thus be opened up for him to re-establish the ancient Rajput power in Hindustan. But Babar had no such intention. He had a far more ambitious end in view. He had entered India, and he meant to stay and found an empire there.

106. **Indian kingdoms.**—The difficulties that Babar and his successors had to encounter in accomplishing such a task were enormous. The kingdom of Delhi was now comparatively insignificant. It consisted only of the districts to the north-west of Delhi and a narrow tract of land along the Jumna as far as Agra. To the south and west of Hindustan were the powerful Afghan kingdoms of Gujarat, Khandesh and Malwa; the strongest of which was Gujarat, which conquered and united to itself the kingdom of Malwa a month after Babar ascended the throne. On the east were the Afghan kingdoms of Jannpur, Bihar and Bengal. In Rajputana, 1526 A.D. the Rajput states under their suzerain, the Rana of Chitor, formed a most powerful rival; while the south of the Peninsula was in the hands of the Sultans of the Bahmini kingdom, and the Maharaja of Vijianagar.

107. **Religious differences.** — The Mughals were Muhammadans, but Muhammadans of a very loose type. They still adhered to a certain extent to their ancestral worship of the "elements"—fire, air, earth, and water. And when the Afghan states saw Babar, on entering India, unite with the "infidel" Rana of Chitor, to attack the "faithful" at Delhi, they could conceive of no more unholy alliance. The Afghans, as faithful followers of the Prophet, could have no sympathy with the Mughals; while the Hindus could only look on Mughal and Afghan alike, as enemies to their religion and their country. This religious difference between the Afghan states in India and the Mughals should be carefully borne in mind, as it will explain to a considerable extent how rival Muhammadan powers fought with such intense bitterness against each other, and, to some extent, what eventually led to the decline of the Mughal empire.

108. Babar's conquests.—The Rana of Chitor, Sanga by name, assisted by his feudal lords of Mhairwara, Jaipur and others, resolved to try issues with the
1527 A.D. Mughals and, if possible, to drive them out of India. But at Sikri, near Agra, Babar gained a complete victory. In the beginning of the following year Chanderi was stormed, the Rajputs were slain to a man, and the Mughal empire was established in India. While Babar was thus subduing the Hindus, his son, Humayun, was no less busy against the Mussalman princes. Within a few months the whole country as far as Jaunpur was reduced. Bengal and Bihar were next attacked, and they submitted to the conqueror.
1530 A.D. Thus, in the four years, before his death in 1530, Babar was enabled to bring the whole of Hindustan, with the exception of Gujarat, under the Mughal power.

109. Character of Babar.—The character of Babar is made known in his memoirs, which were written by himself. He was a man of the most daring spirit, and had the greatest physical endurance. On one occasion, it is said, he rode a hundred and sixty miles in two days, and then swam across the Ganges. He was fond of gay companions, and in adversity was never dispirited. In the midst of his wars he found time to write Persian poetry, which has been admired for its elegance. His death was remarkable. Humayun, his son, was sick. Babar prayed that the sickness might be transferred to himself. Strange to say, as Humayun recovered Babar sickened and died.

110. Humayun.—1530-1540.—Humayun in the third year of his reign turned his arms against Gujarat. Bahadur Shah was then reigning. He was the most powerful monarch that ever ruled over that country. He

had conquered Malwa and absorbed it into Gujarat. Khandesh, Ahmadnagar and Barar had become his vassals. Chitor had been besieged by him; the women had again performed the johur; and in the attack and massacre which followed, as many as thirty-two thousand Rajputs had fallen. The widow of the Rana that had invited Babar was one of those that mounted the funeral pile. Before her death, she secured the escape of her child and sent a bracelet to Humayun. Humayun accepted the gift, and by that pledged himself to be her protector. He thus went to war with a brother Muhammadan for the sake of a Hindu princess. Bahadur Shah was defeated, the fortress of Champanir, which contained his treasury, was captured, and his kingdom was wrested from him; but in the following year he recovered all. Bahadur Shah was afterwards killed in an affray with the Portuguese at Diu.

111. Sher Shah.—A new and even more powerful enemy awaited Humayun on his return to Agra. Sher Shah, an Afghan of the Sur family, had taken possession of Bengal. Humayun advanced against him and captured the fort of Chunar, which commanded the line of communication between Bengal and Hindustan. Gaur fell before him; but the rains setting in, he was unable to advance farther, and his soldiers died off from fever and dysentery. When the rains were over, Sher Shah issued from his hill fortress of Rahtas, whither he had carried his treasures, and coming up with Humayun at Baxar, defeated him. The Emperor plunged into the river, reached the other side, and arrived at Delhi with only a few followers. Assembling an army, he again met Sher Shah at Kanouj, and was again defeated. Humayun fled to his brother Kamran at Lahor, thence through the desert of Sindh to Amarkot, where he arrived accompanied by only *seven followers*.

1539 A.D.

At Amarkot his son Akbar was born. From Amarkot Humayun proceeded to Persia, which he reached in 1544. He was joined there by his General, Bairam Khan. Akbar was sent to Kandahar.

CHAPTER II.

AFGHAN POWER RESTORED—SUR DYNASTY—HUMAYUN.

1540 A.D. TO 1555 A.D.

112. Sher Shah. | 113. Restoration of Humayun.

112. Sher Shah—1540-1545.—On the defeat of Humayun at Kanouj, Sher Shah advanced to Delhi and ascended the throne. Thus was the Mughal empire, established by Babar, overthrown, and the Afghan power re-established in Hindustan. Sher Shah reigned for five years, and during that time so laboured for the good of the country that his reign is one of the brightest periods in Indian history. He introduced the most salutary reforms into almost every part of the civil administration, and constructed from the Indus to Bengal a grand trunk road some two thousand miles in length, with caravansaries at short stages, and wells at intervals of a mile and a half. He built mosques for the use of the "faithful," and he is said to have been the first to introduce the Persian chapar, or mounted postal messengers, for the conveyance of the mails. One act of his reign has left a stain on his character. He was besieging the fort of Raisin in Malwa. The garrison surrendered on condition that their lives should be spared, but Sher Shah slaughtered them almost to a man. While besieging Kalingar in Bundelkhand
1545 A.D. he was killed by the explosion of a magazine. His second son succeeded and followed very much in his father's footsteps in working for the good

of the country; but his successors were weak and profligate. Under the last of the dynasty, Hemu, a Hindu, became minister and advanced the Hindus to rank and power. The Afghan nobles rebelled, and the way was thus made easy for the return of Humayun.

113. **Restoration of Humayun.**—Humayun had been well received in Persia, and with the help of Persian troops had established his authority in Afghanistan. The disturbances in India encouraged him to try to regain his empire. He re-crossed the Indus in 1555, and, defeating Sikandar, the last of the Sur dynasty, at Sarhind, advanced to Delhi and Agra, and mounted the throne he had lost fifteen years before. He did not long enjoy his restored authority. One day while descending the stair leading from the terrace of his palace he heard the call to prayers, he sat down on the steps till the crier was done and then rose, leaning on his staff; the staff slipped on the polished marble and Humayun fell headlong and died from the effects of his fall.

CHAPTER III.

THE MUGHAL EMPIRE IN ITS ZENITH—AKBAR.

1556 A.D. TO 1605 A.D.

114. The Mughal power restored.
115. Akbar.
116. Akbar's policy.
117. Akbar invades Rajputana.
118. Other conquests.
119. Akbar's character.
120. Religion.
121. Revenue settlement.
122. Other reforms.

114. **The Mughal power restored.** — Hemu, the Hindu, was in Bengal when Humayun died. When the news reached him, he thought a golden opportunity had

arrived for re-establishing the ancient Hindu sovereignty, and advanced at once with a large army. Delhi and Agra opened their gates to him. Akbar, now a boy of only thirteen years of age, was in the Punjab with Bairam Khan, his father's faithful friend and most distinguished general. Akbar was proclaimed Emperor, and Bairam Khan was appointed regent. The Mughal army was in a disorganised state. The men of which it was composed cared for little besides securing as much plunder as possible for themselves. Still, the iron will of Bairam kept them in order, and, backed by the opinion of the boy king, Akbar, he resolved to try issues with Hemu. The two armies met at Panipat. The Mughals were victorious, Hemu was taken prisoner. Bairam Khan asked Akbar to kill Hemu and win the title of Ghazi-ud-din, "Champion of the Faith," but Akbar declined to do so, and Bairam slew him with his own sword. Thus for a second time, on the field of Panipat, was the battle for Mughal supremacy fought, and for a second time the Mughal was victorious.

1556 A.D.

115. Akbar—1556-1605.—For the next four years Bairam Khan ruled well. At the end of this time, however, Akbar seems to have thought him too powerful. The young Emperor issued a proclamation that no orders were to be obeyed but what came from himself as Padishah. Bairam Khan seeing himself disgraced rebelled, but submitted and was pardoned before the end of the year, on condition of his going on a pilgrimage to Mecca. On the way he was murdered by a private enemy.

116. Akbar's policy.—The kingdom of Delhi was still of very limited extent. It consisted only of the country around Delhi, and the Punjab. The Mughals were disorganised and weak in numbers, and they were not likely to be strengthened by fresh recruits from Tartary. From

such a small beginning, and with such a limited force, Akbar was to establish an empire. With clear insight, he saw that to consolidate an empire, the Hindus must be reconciled to the Mughals. The memory of the cruelties inflicted on their race by the Afghans—of temples plundered, idols broken, and defenceless women and children massacred—would at any time stimulate them to revenge their former wrongs. The Mughals were Muhammadans, and they could not always be depended on to fight against Muhammadan Afghans. Could Akbar gain the Hindus to his side, they would be of immense value in helping him to extend his empire and to put down revolts.

117. Akbar invades Rajputana.—Akbar, during the first few years of his reign, was almost exclusively engaged in suppressing rebellions of his nobles. He next invaded Rajputana. The Rajput states had a feudal organisation. The land-owners held their lands in return for military service. The vassal was under his lord, the lord under the Raja, the Raja under the Rana, who was head over all. The Rana at this time was Udai Singh of Chitor. Around his banner gathered Bihari Mall, Raja of Jaipur, Maldeo, Raja of Jodhpur, and many others, and for five years the strife between Hindu and Mughal continued. Jaipur and Jodhpur were defeated. Then Akbar made known his policy. He, as Padishah, would become Suzerain, *i.e.*, the highest chief, under him. Every Raja considered it an honour to receive a daughter of the Rana in marriage, and an equal honour to give one of his daughters to the Rana. Akbar received a daughter of Jaipur, and a daughter of Jodhpur in marriage, and they, in turn, received Akbar's daughters in wedlock. Now that the Rajputs were related to Akbar by marriage, they were raised to high positions in the state. The Rana of Chitor, however, would enter into no such infamous alliance—an

1557 A.D. 15

alliance contrary alike to religion and caste law; nor would he acknowledge Akbar as his Suzerain. Akbar, therefore, laid siege to Chitor and the city was forced to surrender. Udai Singh escaped to the Aravali hills, and there founded Udaipur. But, though the city of Chitor was laid in ruins and deserted, it was never forgotten. To this day the Rana never twists his beard, because of an oath taken by Udai Singh, that he would never do so till he had re-taken the city.

118. Other conquests.—Akbar next proceeded to the subjugation of the Afghan states. Gujarat was taken. Bengal, which under Daud Khan had asserted its independence, was subdued. Orissa, which from time immemorial had been ruled by Gajapatis, but which had been lately conquered by Sulaiman, father of Daud Khan and King of Bengal, was made tributary to Delhi. Kashmir was added to the Mughal empire. Ahmadnagar after being heroically defended by the celebrated Chand Bibi, aunt of the infant Sultan, Bahadur Nizam Shah, fell before him. Barar in the Deccan was subdued. Akbar would have conquered Golkonda and Bijapur also, but he was suddenly recalled to Delhi by the revolt of his son Jahangir.

119. Akbar's character.—Akbar has been described as a tall and handsome man, of a fair complexion, remarkable for strength and courage, fond of exercise, and delighting in hunting and every kind of sport. He was beyond doubt the greatest of all the Muhammadan rulers. It is said of him that he never fought a battle that he did not win, nor besieged a town that he did not take. But, though great as a warrior, he was perhaps greater as a statesman, and his fame rests more on the far-seeing policy he adopted and on the excellent institutions he established, than on the conquests he made.

120. **Religion.**—Akbar is described by Muhammadan writers as a Muhammadan, but he was a Muhammadan of a very unorthodox kind. His marrying the daughters of Rajputs was contrary to the teaching of the Koran, and, though probably before they entered the harem they made a profession of Muhammadan faith, still, when once admitted, they were allowed to have Brahman priests, and to set up idols and sacrifice to them. He appointed Hindus to the highest offices under the crown, and thereby foreshadowed the system of religious equality now prevalent in India. Under the influence of Abul Fazl, a very learned man, who rose to be minister, men of all religions were invited to his court, and allowed to discuss religious questions. The Ulama, an assembly of Muhammadan divines, was broken up, and Akbar professed the highest respect for Christianity. Afterwards, under the influence of the same Abul Fazl, he founded a new religion, known as the *Divine Faith*, but he secured very few converts and would not force it on his people. Before Akbar's death in 1605, Abul Fazl was assassinated by instigation of Jahangir, and after this Akbar ceased his attempts to break down the Muhammadan faith. Akbar's religious policy seems to have had for its object the freeing of the secular power from the control of the priesthood. It was similar to that of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth.

121. **Revenue settlement.**—Todar Mall, the great financier of the age, was appointed to make a revenue settlement, *i.e.*, to fix the annual amount to be paid by the holders of land. All lands under the Mughals were divided into two kinds—Kalisa lands, the rents of which were paid direct to the Emperor, and Jaghirs, which were given to the servants of the crown, governors, grandees and others, who paid a fixed rent to the Emperor, and retained whatever surplus they might be able to collect. Under

the supervision of Todar Mall, all the land was carefully measured and divided into three classes according to its fertility. All arbitrary taxes were abolished, and the rent fixed to be paid by the cultivator to the State was one-third the value of the produce.

122. Other reforms.—Jaghirs were abolished, and the soldiers were paid in cash and not by assignments of land. Jazyia, a capitation tax on infidels, was discontinued; sati discouraged; and the practice of reducing captives to slavery abolished. These reforms are all recorded in the Ain-i-Akbari, "Laws and Regulations of Akbar," written by the learned Abul Fazl.

CHAPTER IV.

JAHANGIR.

1605 A.D. TO 1627 A.D.

123. Jahangir.
124. Khusrau.
125. Nur Jahan.
126. Shah Jahan in the Deccan.
127. Shah Jahan rebels.
128. Jahangir a prisoner.
129. Sir Thomas Roe.

123. Jahangir—1605-1627.—Akbar was succeeded by his son Salim, who ascended the throne under the title of Jahangir, "Conqueror of the World." His mother was Jodh Bai, the daughter of Maldeo, Raja of Jodhpur. Jahangir was a drunkard. He was harsh and cruel, and enjoyed seeing his victims tortured; yet he prided himself in giving ready access to all who had complaints to make, and in seeing that justice was done to them. He was, moreover, a much stricter Muhammadan than his father.

124. Khusrau.—Khusrau, the son of Jahangir, had been Akbar's favourite. His mother was a grand-daughter

of Bihari Mall of Jaipur. Khusrau was fond of the Rajputs and strongly inclined towards Christianity. Being afraid of his father, he fled to Lahor. A large army, composed chiefly of Rajputs, came to his aid. Jahangir followed him. Khusrau was betrayed and sent to his father in chains. Jahangir then took a terrible revenge. Seven hundred of Khusrau's followers were impaled in a line leading to the gates of Lahor. The wretched Khusrau was led through this line of victims to hear their shrieks and see their agonies, and the sad sight made a life-long impression upon him. His own life was spared, but he was kept a prisoner till his death in 1621.

125. **Nur Jahan.** — During this period an event took place that influenced the whole reign of Jahangir. He married Nur Mahal, afterwards known as Nur Jahan, "The Light of the World." Nur Mahal belonged to a noble Persian family, but her parents became so poor that they were unable to support her, and they left the little child on the roadside to whatever fate might befall her. A rich merchant passing along the road observed the child, took her and brought her up as his own. As he was a man of influence, Nur Mahal through him obtained frequent admission to Akbar's harem, and Jahangir having seen her, was smitten with her beauty. Akbar, fearing that evil might follow from this, gave her in marriage to Sher Khan, an Afghan, and presented him with a jaghir in Bengal. Nur Mahal was thus removed from Jahangir's sight. But though removed from him, she was not forgotten. When he ascended the throne he took means to have Sher Khan put to death, and then he married the widow. From this time her ascendancy became unbounded. Her father, a very able and upright man, was made prime minister; her brother, Asof Khan, was raised to a high rank in the army; Jahangir would take no step without consulting her; and

1611 A.D.

what she willed was law. Her life was one continuous scheming to retain this ascendancy, and, if possible, to fix the succession to the throne in her own family.

126. **Shah Jahan in the Deccan.**—Meanwhile Jahangir's attention was drawn to the Deccan. On the capture of Ahmadnagar by Akbar, Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian noble of great ability, had founded a new capital at Kharki, afterwards known as *Aurangabad*, and ruled there in the name of the young prince of the fallen house of Ahmadnagar. Bijapur and Golkonda had joined him. The combined forces had recaptured Ahmadnagar and driven the Mughal army as far north as Burhanpur.

1616 A.D. Shah Jahan was sent into the Deccan against them. Before going thither he stood in the highest favour. He had married a niece of Nur Jahan; he had highly distinguished himself in a war against the Rajputs, in which he had compelled the Rana of Udaipur to render submission to the throne of Delhi. He had been declared to be the heir-apparent to the throne. His conduct of the war in the Deccan was completely successful. He drew away Bijapur

1621 A.D. and Golkonda from their alliance with Malik Ambar, defeated Malik Ambar in the field, and compelled him to give up a considerable extent of territory and pay a large sum of money to the Emperor.

127. **Shah Jahan rebels.**—About this time Jahangir fell *ill*, and immediately there was a general plotting and scheming as to who should succeed him in case of his death. Khusrau, who was with Shah Jahan, died—it is supposed was put to death at the instigation of the latter. Shah Jahan had shown such great ability and decision of character, that Nur Jahan felt that, if he were to succeed Jahangir, her ascendancy would be lost. Besides, Shahryar, Jahangir's youngest son, had married

her daughter by her first husband. He was more closely related to her than Shah Jahan, who had married a niece. She would, therefore, oppose Shah Jahan and support Shahryar. Jahangir nominated Bulaki, son of Khusrau, as his successor. Nur Jahan's power was soon felt; as the result of her intrigues Shah Jahan was ordered to surrender the command of a large part of his army to Shahryar, who was going against Persia. Shah Jahan instead of obeying marched to Agra, and tried to seize the treasury. Jahangir hastened from Lahor. Shah Jahan shrank from meeting his father in battle, retired into Telingana and thence to Bengal. Later he sought refuge in the Deccan under the protection of Malik Ambar.

128. Jahangir a prisoner.—Meanwhile, dissensions broke out in the imperial army. Nur Jahan hated the Rajputs. She now turned against Mahabat Khan, who supported the claims of Parwiz, Jahangir's second son. If we except Asof Khan, the queen's brother, Mahabat Khan was perhaps the most distinguished subject of the realm, and a man beloved by the people. Nur Jahan determined on his overthrow. He was summoned to appear before the Emperor, and, when he arrived, the Emperor would not see him. Knowing well what that meant, he formed the daring resolve to seize Jahangir, and thus subvert Nur Jahan's projects. He fell upon Jahangir by surprise on the banks of the Jhelum and took him prisoner; but treated him with the utmost respect, continuing to issue all orders in his name as Emperor. 1626 A.D. Nur Jahan was completely baffled. The king was now beyond her influence. She tried to rescue him, and in the attempt nearly lost her life. Subsequently, however, Jahangir made his escape. Mahabat Khan felt all was lost, and as Parwiz had just died, he fled to the Deccan and joined Shah Jahan 1627 A.D.

Jahangir died the following year, on his way from Kashmir to Lahor, in the sixtieth year of his age.

129. Sir Thomas Roe, English Ambassador.—It was during this reign that Sir Thomas Roe was sent by James I. as English ambassador to the great Mughal. He was received with much honour, and has given us a description of the manners of the court, and of the state of the country at the time of his visit. He describes the Durbar Hall as resembling an English theatre. All the grandees had to prostrate themselves on approaching the Emperor. Sir Thomas Roe was present at a great party on the evening of Jahangir's birth-day, when the drinking was excessive. Jahangir on that occasion scattered rupees among the rabble, and gold and silver almonds among the nobles, who scrambled for them like children. He accompanied the imperial camp into Rajputana, and he describes the camp as a moving city. There were the imperial pavilions and the pavilions of the nobles and long streets of shops, like the bazaars of a city, and as at the different stages these were all arranged in the same order, there was no confusion. The cities of the Deccan he found much deserted, and altogether the country was not in such a prosperous condition as it had been in the time of Akbar.

1615 A.D.

CHAPTER V.

SHAH JAHAN.

1627 A.D. TO 1658 A.D.

130. Shah Jahan.
131. Khan Jahan Lodi rebels.
132. Massacre of the Portuguese.
133. Shah Jahan's four sons.
134. Fratricidal war.
135. Death of Shah Jahan.

130. Shah Jahan—1627-1658.—Asof Khan at once sent off messengers to Shah Jahan, his son-in-law, to

acquaint him with the news of Jahangir's death. And, in the meantime, that his actions might have the appearance of legal authority, and that he might thereby be able to thwart Nur Jahan, who was in favour of Shahryar, he proclaimed Bulaki, the nominee of Jahangir, Emperor, and placed Nur Jahan in confinement. He then marched to Lahor, defeated Shahryar, and put him to death. Shah Jahan, on receiving the news of the death of his father, hastened to Agra accompanied by Mahabat Khan, and was immediately proclaimed Emperor. His first acts were to put to death all the members of the Babar family, except his own children, and to confer the highest honours on Mahabat Khan and Asof Khan. Nur Jahan retired into private life, and was allowed a pension of about twenty-five lakhs per annum.

131. **Khan Jahan Lodi rebels.**—The early part of Shah Jahan's reign was disturbed by Khan Jahan, an Afghan, who had a command in the army. At first he refused to acknowledge Shah Jahan as Emperor but afterwards returned to obedience, and was removed from the Deccan to Malwa. Subsequently, however, becoming suspicious that the Emperor was aiming at his life, he rose in rebellion, and marching into the Deccan, persuaded the king of Ahmadnagar to join him. Shah Jahan advanced against them in person. Khan Jahan was overtaken at Bundelkhand and slain. Bijapur and Golkonda were reduced and compelled to pay tribute, and Shaji, the father of Sivaji, who had set up a king on the throne of Ahmadnagar having submitted, the kingdom of Ahmadnagar was brought to an end. 1637 A.D.

132. **Massacre of the Portuguese.** — Shah Jahan hated the Portuguese. When he rebelled against his father and entered Bengal, he had asked them to assist him, but they had refused. He now took his revenge.

The Portuguese had been permitted by Akbar to establish a settlement on the Hugli and when it was reported to Shah Jahan that they were mounting cannon on their fort he ordered "the infidels to be expelled." This order was carried out with great slaughter and the Portuguese power in Bengal was at an end. The men on refusing to become Muhammadans were massacred, and the women were made slaves.

133. **Shah Jahan's four sons.**—Shah Jahan had peace in his own kingdom during the greater part of his reign. In 1657 he fell dangerously ill. The country was at once in a ferment. Shah Jahan had four sons, all of whom were governors of provinces, and it was known there would be a contest among them for the throne. Each had a distinctive character. Dara, the eldest, as heir-apparent, resided at the court. He was frank and generous, but impatient of opposition, and he treated the Rajputs in an overbearing way. Shuja was governor of Bengal and a man wholly addicted to pleasure, but well disposed to the Rajputs. Aurangzeb was governor of the Deccan. He was a perfect contrast to his elder brothers. He was cautious, ever on the watch to gain friends, brave, a perfect master in the art of dissimulation, and he professed to be very religious. Morad was governor of Gujarat. He was stupid and self-willed, and abandoned himself to sensual pleasures. Dara was a freethinker, Shuja a Shiah, and Aurangzeb and Morad were Sunnis. The war which followed became to a considerable extent a religious war.

134. **Fratricidal war.**—Shuja was the first to take the field. He was defeated by Dara and driven back with the wreck of his army to Bengal. Morad took up arms in Gujarat, and Aurangzeb determined to use his dull-witted brother as a means to work his own way to the crown

He wrote to him telling him that as Sunnis they ought to unite, and try to prevent an infidel like Dara or a heretic like Shuja from gaining the throne. He himself had no desire for empire. All he wished was to see a good and true Muhammadan at the head of the Government, and then he would go on a pilgrimage to Mecca. The simple Morad believed him. The two armies were united and soon on the march through Rajputana to Agra. On their way they encountered Jaswant Singh of Jodhpur, who was in favour of Dara, at Ujjain. He was assisted by a Muhammadan army; but the Mussalman soldiers would not fire a gun on such a devout Muhammadan as Aurangzeb, and Jaswant Singh's own Rajputs were cut to pieces. Morad and Aurangzeb met Dara within a day's march of Agra. Dara's army was composed of Rajputs and Muhammadans. The Muhammadans held back. The Rajput leader was slain. Dara's elephant was wounded and he was compelled to alight. The Muhammadan commander gave out that Dara was killed, and the soldiers retreated. Dara was forced to gallop off to Agra with only a handful of men, and fled thence to the Punjab. Aurangzeb congratulated Morad on having gained the kingdom, and returned thanks to Heaven for the victory. The victorious army then marched to Agra, and made Shah Jahan a prisoner. Aurangzeb feigned to be making preparations for Morad's coronation. Suddenly the announcement was made that Morad had been found drunk, and that, as a drunkard was unfit to reign, he had been sent a prisoner to the fort of Gwalior. Aurangzeb was, thereupon, proclaimed Emperor amid the acclamations of his soldiers. 1658 A.D.

135. **Death of Shah Jahan.**—Shah Jahan recovered from his illness and lived as a prisoner in his palace at Agra for eight years longer. He died in December 1666. Shah Jahan will live in 1666 A.D.

history in connection with his public works. The Taj Mahal at Agra, a mausoleum of white marble decorated with mosaics, built in honour of his favourite wife, Mumtaz Mahal, daughter of Asof Khan, is unsurpassed in the world for beauty of design and richness of material. Shah Jahan did not live at Delhi, but he built the new city there, and set up the peacock throne, which was considered one of the wonders of the world. On the whole, Shah Jahan was a good and wise ruler. The empire had peace during the greater part of his reign and the people were contented and prosperous. He made a revenue settlement in the Deccan similar to that of Todar Mal.

CHAPTER VI.

AURANGZEB.

1658 A.D. TO 1707 A.D.

136. Aurangzeb.
137. Aurangzeb's policy.
138. Persecution of the Hindus.
139. Rajputana invaded.
140. Rise of the Mahrattas.
141. The Deccan invaded.
142. Death of Aurangzeb.
143. Aurangzeb's character.

136. Aurangzeb—1658-1707.—Aurangzeb was proclaimed Emperor at Delhi, but he was not crowned till a year later. He had still much cruel work to do before he could establish himself firmly on the throne. Dara and Shuja were still at liberty, and were gathering armies to contend with Aurangzeb for the crown. Shuja advanced from Bengal. Aurangzeb and Mir Jumla, accompanied by Jaswant Singh, set out to meet him. The armies came up with each other near Allahabad. Jaswant Singh suddenly went over to Shuja's side and attacked Aurangzeb's baggage; but, Shuja not coming to his assistance in time, Aurangzeb was victorious. Jaswant Singh hastened back to Rajputana, and Shuja fled to Bengal. The

latter was pursued by Mir Jumla, and forced to flee with his family to Arakan, where he perished miserably. Aurangzeb then went in pursuit of Dara, whom Jaswant Singh had promised to assist. Meanwhile, Aurangzeb forgave the Rajput Raja his past treachery, and satisfied all his demands. When the time came for action, Jaswant Singh deserted Dara, who was forced to flee to the Punjab. Dara fell into the hands of an Afghan, who betrayed him to his brother, and he was sent to Delhi in chains. There he was tried and condemned to death as an infidel; and, after being paraded through the streets that the people might see him, his head was struck off. Aurangzeb feigned to be very sorry, and even wept when the head was brought to him. Sulaiman, Dara's son, was also captured and sent as a state prisoner to Gwalior. Thus by acts of the vilest treachery and bloodshed, and by the help of the Hindus, Aurangzeb overcame his brothers, and was installed at Delhi as Padishah of the Mughal empire.

137. Aurangzeb's policy.—Had Aurangzeb followed the policy of Akbar and united the Mughal and the Rajput still more closely, he might have consolidated his empire and reigned the undisputed monarch of the whole of India. But, though the Rajputs had been chiefly instrumental in raising him to the throne, he hated them with all the zeal of a religious bigot, and, by his subsequent oppressions, converted them from being his staunchest friends into his most bitter enemies, and thereby paved the way for the decline and fall of the Mughal empire. The dream of Aurangzeb's life, now that he was firmly planted on the throne, was the destruction of idolatry and the establishment of Muhammadanism throughout the length and breadth of the land. His zeal was strengthened by the revolt of the Satnarainas near Narnul. These were a sect of Hindu devotees that considered themselves to be under the special protection of the Almighty, and, therefore, to

be invincible. Aurangzeb wrote some texts of the Koran with his own hand and attached them to his standards. His soldiers, considering themselves thereby protected from the spell, rushed on the Hindus and defeated them.

1676 A.D.

138. Persecution of the Hindus.—Aurangzeb then began his religious persecutions. He degraded the Rajputs. All Hindus employed under his government were compelled either to embrace the Muslim faith or lose their appointments. Idols were overturned, pagodas destroyed and mosques built with the materials. Even in the holy city of Benares the most sacred temples were levelled to the ground, mosques erected in their places, and the images used as steps for "the faithful" to tread on. Hindus were not allowed to celebrate their festivals, and *jazyia*, a tax on infidels that had been abolished by Akbar, was revived. All the viceroys in the provinces had instructions to act in the same manner. No tax could possibly be more unpopular than this jazyia, and the imposition of it led to the most fatal consequences to the empire.

139. Rajputana invaded.—Jaswant Singh and Jai Singh were dead. Aurangzeb proceeded to introduce his persecuting measures into Rajputana. Jaipur, bound to the house of Delhi by many intermarriages, at once submitted and paid jazyia, and the widow of Jaswant Singh, after an appearance of resistance, also yielded. The Rana of Udaipur had been left undisturbed for years. Aurangzeb next came down upon him. But he was made of the same stern stuff as his ancestors, and refused to yield. Driven from Udaipur, he took refuge in the Aravali Hills, and there for years defied the whole army of Aurangzeb. The mighty Mughal army, divided into three parts, under the command of Aurangzeb's three sons, took possession of the plains; but into the fastnesses of the Rajput prince they

dared not venture. Years were spent, treasures wasted, and the Mughal strength was reduced, but to no purpose. Finally Akbar, Aurangzeb's son, rebelled, and Aurangzeb, utterly humiliated, was forced to withdraw his troops and leave the Rajputs to worship their gods free from molestation. The Rani of Jodhpur would seem to have been at the bottom of this rebellion. She evidently had repented of submitting to Aurangzeb, and now sent an army of fifty thousand Rajputs to Akbar's aid. Aurangzeb had recourse to that cunning artifice of which he was such a master. Early in his reign, when he sent an army of Muhammadans and Rajputs under the command of his eldest son, Shah Alam, against the celebrated Sivaji, he had instructed Shah Alam to raise a *sham rebellion*, with the view not only of trying to entrap Sivaji, but also to test the fidelity of the troops to the Emperor. On that occasion, the Rajput leaders to a man declared in favour of Shah Alam, and the nature of the rebellion having been disclosed they were either killed or sent into exile. This sham rebellion was of good service to Aurangzeb now. He sent a letter by a messenger, giving the messenger instructions that he should allow himself to be taken prisoner by the Rajputs. The letter, therefore, fell into the hands of the Rajput leaders. The purport of it was to show that this rebellion of Prince Akbar's was also a sham, that he was in collusion with Aurangzeb, and that the object of it was the destruction of the Rajputs. The memory of Shah Alam's trick was still fresh in their minds. The Rajputs at once deserted Akbar, who fled into the Konkan to the Mahrattas and subsequently retired to Persia.

140. Rise of the Mahrattas.—The history of the Mahrattas will be given in detail in subsequent chapters, but some mention must be made of them here. The founder of the Mahratta power was Sivaji. This remarkable man was given charge of the Poona District by the

Mughal Government, but soon omitted to pay tribute and began to establish fortified places in the hills. From these forts he made constant plundering expeditions, and was especially troublesome to the Sultans of Bijapur and Golkonda, pouncing down upon their territory, destroying villages and carrying off plunder before ever they had time to collect their forces to oppose him. Bijapur was glad to make peace with him by surrendering certain territories and fortresses. Sivaji then advanced against the Mughals, and so bold were he and his followers, that they would even attack and plunder the Mughal camp.

1683 A.D. On his father's death Sivaji had assumed the title of Raja, he was now dead, and his son, Sambhaji was on the throne. It was to Sambhaji that Prince Akbar fled.

141. Aurangzeb invades the Deccan.—Aurangzeb resolved to crush this new Mahratta power, and

1683 A.D. to reduce to submission the other kingdoms of Southern India. In 1683 he left Delhi, and he was destined never to return thither. His army was magnificent beyond all former example. His camp was supplied with every luxury that could be procured. "The canvas walls, which surrounded the Emperor's personal encampment, were twelve hundred yards in circumference, and the tents contained halls of audience, courts, cabinets, mosques, oratories and baths, adorned with the finest silks and velvets, and cloth of gold." Probably not fewer than one million persons were assembled in his camp.

With such an unwieldy army, Aurangzeb marched into the Deccan. He continued his old suicidal policy. Instead of making friends with the Hindus of

1686 A.D. the South, and thereby securing their aid against Bijapur and Golkonda, he at once levied jazyia, and stirred up their hatred. He sent forty thou-

sand of his army under his son Muzzam into the Mahratta country, but only a remnant of it returned. He captured Bijapur in 1686, and from this date Bijapur disappears from history. The following year Golkonda was taken, and the whole of the Karnatic and Telingana was overrun, except the country of the Mahrattas and the principality of Tanjore. The Mughal power had now reached its greatest height. From this time we must date its decline and fall.

1688 A.D.

142. **Death of Aurangzeb.**—The remaining years of Aurangzeb's life were spent in camp, fighting with the Mahrattas and putting down plots among his own generals. He would seem indeed to have been afraid to return to Delhi, and leave the command of the army to his sons. He knew the means he had taken to seize his father's throne, and he feared his sons might treat him in like manner. All commands were, therefore, given by himself, and he kept himself in direct communication with his subordinates in the provinces. As Aurangzeb increased in years, his government began to languish. His army became disorganized. The luxury of the camp was demoralizing to the soldiers. And though Aurangzeb secured the person of Sambhaji, and put him to a cruel death, and took Sahu, Sambhaji's son, captive, this only stirred the Mahrattas up the more against him. His army could make little way against those freebooters. His soldiers could not venture into the defiles of the Konkan where the Mahrattas took shelter, and they were constantly being taken by surprise by the Mahrattas when on the plains. Aurangzeb was compelled at last to retreat. He retired to Ahmadnagar, closely followed by the victorious Mahrattas. At Ahmadnagar, Aurangzeb died. His last moments were very sad. His last words were, "I have committed many crimes, I know not with what punishment I may be visited."

1707 A.D.

143. Aurangzeb's character. — From a strictly Muhammadan point of view Aurangzeb was a great and good man. His zeal for the faith of Islam and his persistent persecution of idolaters must give him a high place in the estimation of Muhammadans, and may lead them even to regard him as the greatest of the Mughal emperors. In personal bravery, military talents and devotion to business he was probably as great as Akbar. But his suspicious nature, the want of confidence in those around him, his attempts to manage all the details of his government himself, made him most unhappy, and tended to weaken, if not to undermine, his empire. The manner in which Aurangzeb allowed the Mahratta power to rise reflects little credit on his statesmanship; the overthrow of the kingdoms of Golkonda and Bijapur, whose resources he might have secured to put down those predatory warriors, was a grave political blunder. His oppression of the Rajputs and his forcing jazyia on Southern India make his policy a marked contrast to that of Akbar. Akbar won the Hindus to his side. Aurangzeb, by his persecutions, drove them into open enmity. And when he died, he left the Mughal empire, which, in the middle of his reign, had risen to its greatest height and reached its widest extent, weakened and disunited throughout, with the Rajputs and Mahrattas strong and self-reliant hovering on its borders and resolved on its downfall.

CHAPTER VII.

RISE OF THE MAHRATTA POWER—SIVAJI.

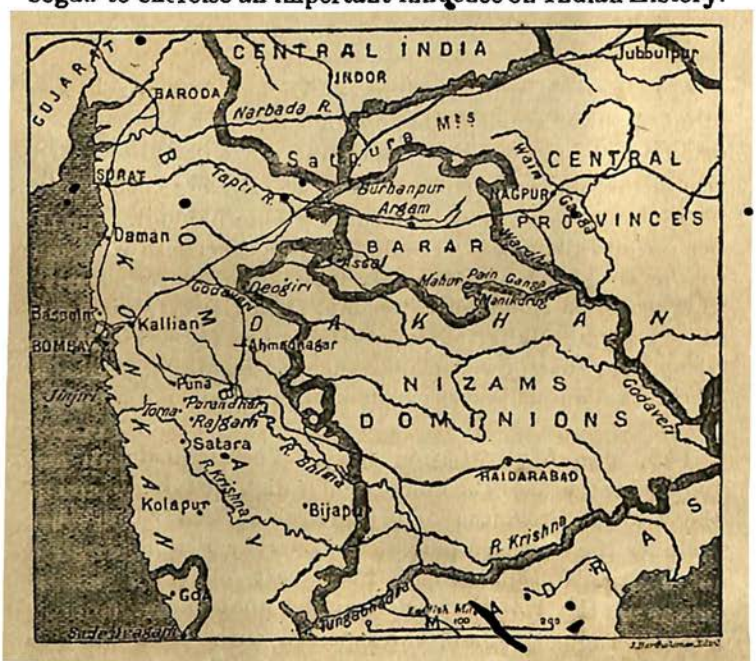
144. The Hindu revival.
145. The Mahratta country.
146. Sivaji's origin and boyhood.
147. Sivaji's first successes.
148. Murder of Afzul Khan.
149. Sivaji attacks the Mughals.
150. Agreement of Purandhar.
151. Sivaji at Delhi.
152. Coronation of Sivaji.
153. Sivaji invades the Carnatic.
154. Death of Sivaji.
155. Sambhaji.
156. Sambhaji's character and death.
157. Contests with the Mughals.

144. The Hindu revival. — Under Aurangzeb the Mughal power reached its height, but under him, too, its decline had begun. One important cause of this was the rise of the Mahratta power, which has already been briefly noticed, and must now be treated in more detail. It has been well called the "Hindu Revival," because while up to the time of Sivaji the Muhammadan power had an uninterrupted course of extension, from the establishment of the Hindu Mahratta power it seemed for a long time likely that that power would succeed in taking the place of the Muhammadan as paramount in India.

145. The Mahratta country.—The original home of the Mahrattas was the mountainous district lying between the Central Provinces and the Arabian Sea which now includes the southern part of the Bombay Presidency and the Nizam's Dominions. That part of this country known as the Konkan, between the ghats and the sea, is a wild, rugged region, interspersed with thick jungles and intersected by numerous rivers. Towering above the mountains and rising sometimes to a height of four hundred feet are huge rocks, which the Mahrattas formed into strong forts known as the Mahratta Hill Forts. Access to those forts was most difficult. The roads throughout

the country generally were but rough footpaths; while those leading to the forts ran along narrow passes and defiles, sometimes so precipitous that it was with the utmost difficulty a horseman could make his way along them.

146. Sivaji's origin and boyhood.—When Ala-ud-din Khilji invaded the Deccan and captured Deogiri, he found a Mahratta prince named Ramdeo reigning there, but it was not till about three centuries after that the Mahrattas began to exercise an important influence on Indian History.



This influence dates from the time of the great Sivaji, who was born in 1627. Before that time the Mahratta country was divided between the two Muhammadan kingdoms of Ahmadnagar and Bijapur. At the court of the latter a Mahratta named Shahji was high in favour. He belonged

to the Bhonsle family which claimed descent from the royal family of Oudipur. We have seen that one result of the rebellion of Khan Jahan against Shah Jahan was the extinction of the Kingdom of Ahmadnagar. On this Shahji went to Bijapur, and as he had a great reputation as a warrior, having already fought for Bijapur against Muhabat Khan, the Sultan Muhammad Adil Shah welcomed him and gave him a jaghir in the Carnatic.

Sivaji.—Shahji's son, Sivaji, was born at the Fort of Sooner and was left at Poona when his father went to the Carnatic under the care of Dadaji Kundeo, a Brahman. He was educated in true Mahratta fashion. He could never write his own name; but he was a splendid archer, well skilled in the use of the spear, the sword and the javelin, and he excelled in horsemanship. His Brahman tutor took the utmost care to instruct him in all the ceremonies of the Hindu faith, and in the observances rendered necessary by the rules of caste. Nothing pleased Sivaji as a boy more than to listen to the story of the Ramayana or the Mahabharata, and often would he long to emulate the exploits of the heroes of those poems. 1627 A.D.

147. Sivaji's first successes.—Sivaji received from the Mughal Government a jaghir in the neighbourhood of Poona. From his boyhood he had a hatred of the Muhammadan rule and seems to have very early thought himself destined to overthrow it. Tradition says that the goddess Bhawani had appeared to Shahji's father and informed him that one of his family would become a king, that he would destroy all who molested the Brahmans or violated the temples of the gods, and that his posterity would reign for twenty-five generations. Perhaps he was encouraged by this prophecy when at the age of eighteen he withheld the tribute due to Shah Jahan and commenced his work of plundering and conquest

by taking the fort of Torna. While digging amongst its ruins, he came upon a large quantity of gold
1646 A.D. that had been secreted there at a very remote time. This good luck he attributed to the favour of the goddess Bhawani. With the money he purchased arms and ammunition, and built another fort to the south-east of Torna, and called it Rajgarh. Kondaneh and Sopa next fell into his hands, and by the most artful treachery he got possession of Purandhar. During the next two years he seized fort after fort and, though the government of Bijapur was quite aware of what Sivaji was doing, still they do not seem to have thought his incursions of so much importance as to render it necessary to send an armed force against him. It seems strange that the government of Bijapur should have remained so inactive, and should have allowed Sivaji to go on increasing in strength, when they could easily have crushed him; still more strange that Aurangzeb, when the Mahrattas invaded the Mughal territories, should have acted very much in the same impassive way. Both had cause to regret their inactivity. They allowed a predatory power, small at first, gradually to increase in strength until Bijapur was compelled to pay it tribute, and Aurangzeb was forced to fly before it out of the Deccan. Sivaji next captured Callian, and made the governor prisoner. When the news of this reached Bijapur all was excitement and anxiety. Adil Shah, the sultan, becoming suspicious that Shahji was in league with Sivaji, summoned him from his jaghir in the Carnatic, and cast him into a stone dungeon, the door of which was built up, only a small opening being left to admit light and air. Shahji was then informed that unless Sivaji surrendered within a certain time, this opening would be closed for ever.

148. **Murder of Afzul Khan.**—Sivaji up to this time had carefully avoided making inroads into the Mughal

territory. His force was yet comparatively weak; he might meet with disaster; Bijapur might awake from its torpor and crush him; it would be of great advantage to him in such an extremity to be on friendly terms with the Emperor. This far-seeing policy served him in good stead now. He at once applied to Shah Jahan to intercede on behalf of his father; with the result that Shahji was set at liberty, and Sivaji raised to the command of five thousand horse. Aurangzeb had been appointed viceroy of the Deccan, and had determined on the overthrow of Bijapur. On the return of Aurangzeb to Delhi consequent on the illness of Shah Jahan, the government of Bijapur was set free to use all its resources to crush the Mahrattas, and it resolved to do so. An army of five thousand horse and seven thousand choice infantry, with artillery, under the command of Afzul Khan, an officer of the highest rank, advanced against Sivaji. When he heard of their approach, he sent the most humble messages. He was very sorry for his past conduct. He could not possibly oppose such a distinguished general as the Khan. If the Khan would assure him of his favour and pardon he would surrender the whole country. He begged Afzul Khan to meet him at some place and hold a conference. Afzul Khan, thrown off his guard, consented and they met. During the customary embrace, Sivaji struck the wag-nakh or tiger's claws, a small steel weapon with hooked blades which he held concealed on the fingers of his left hand, into the bowels of Afzul Khan, and then stabbed him to the heart with his dagger. His troops, who were in ambush, rushed on the troops of Bijapur and cut them to pieces. This treachery and the success that followed greatly raised Sivaji in the estimation of the Mahrattas, and the horses, elephants, treasure and baggage, which fell into his hands, greatly strengthened his position. Sivaji's possessions now included the whole of the Konkan, from Kallian to

1662 A.D.

Goa; and the Ghat Mahta, from the Bhima to the Wardha; the greatest breadth of his territory being about one hundred miles.

149. Sivaji attacks the Mughals.—Sivaji now resolved to attack the Mughals. With a large army, commanded by himself and Morar Punt, the Peshwa, *i.e.*, Prime Minister, he invaded the Mughal dominions, and his cavalry swept through the country striking terror wherever they went. Shaista Khan, the viceroy of the Deccan, was ordered to punish Sivaji for this daring incursion. He at once advanced into the Mahratta country, took Poona, and set up his residence in the very house in which Sivaji had been brought up. Then was performed by Sivaji one of those most daring feats, which struck with wonder the minds of his countrymen, and which they delight to exult over even in the present day. Sivaji with a few followers mingled, unobserved, with a crowd that was following a marriage procession in Poona, and during the night when all was quiet, they attacked the house of Shaista Khan. Shaista Khan escaped with the loss of two of his fingers, and Sivaji and his men retired before the Mughal troops could be gathered together to intercept them. Sivaji next attacked Surat, plundered the city for six days, and carried off its treasure to Raigarh. The plunder on this occasion might have been greater had it not been for the gallant opposition of the English and the Portuguese, who not only protected their own property, but also saved a part of that belonging to the natives. Sivaji now assumed the title of Raja, and *struck coins* in his own name.

1664 A.D.

150. Agreement of Purandhar.—Sivaji having built a fleet, waylaid the Mughal ships on their way to Mecca, and exacted heavy ransoms from the rich pilgrims. This roused the religious wrath of Aurangzeb. Hitherto he had

affected to despise Sivaji, whom he called "a mountain rat." He had allowed Sivaji to make numerous incursions and to plunder Surat, without sending a sufficient force to crush him. Probably he was afraid to do so —afraid to entrust a large army to a general who might use the army against himself. Probably he was afraid to leave Delhi, as Shah Jehan was still alive there, and during his absence a party might arise and reinstate him on the throne. But this sacrilege of plundering pilgrims on the way to Mecca could not be overlooked. A large army was therefore sent under Jai Singh and Dilir Khan against Sivaji, Jai Singh leaving his son at court as a hostage for his good conduct. Sivaji was soon reduced to difficulties, and forced to enter into a treaty at Purandhar, by which he had to surrender all the territory he had taken from the Mughals. In return he was allowed certain assignments on the territory of Bijapur, which consisted of Chauth, *i.e.*, one-fourth, and Sirdeshmukhi, *i.e.*, one-tenth, of the revenue of certain districts.

151. **Sivaji at Delhi.** — Sivaji now joined Jai Singh and fought against Bijapur, and so distinguished himself in the Emperor's service that Aurangzeb invited him to court. Sivaji accepted the invitation and set out for Delhi, accompanied by five hundred choice horsemen. On his arrival there he thought he was treated with great indignity when he was ranked only amongst those that commanded five thousand troops. He resented this and soon found himself a prisoner. But by the help of the son of Jai Singh he got himself conveyed out of the palace in a basket and escaped. He arrived at Raigarh in December 1666, which was, it may be noted, the month of Shah Jehan's death. 1666 A.D.

152. **Coronation of Sivaji.**—Sivaji immediately took up arms against the Mughals. Jaswant Singh of Jodhpur

and Sultan Muazzam, viceroy of the Deccan, were sent against him; but by a lavish distribution of gold, Sivaji soon obtained the most favourable terms from them, and then attacked Bijapur and Golkonda and compelled them to pay tribute. Sivaji then determined to assume the ensigns of royalty, and was crowned at Raigarh with the most solemn rites and ceremonies. He was weighed against gold and the money was given to the Brahmans. Large sums were distributed in charity. The titles Sivaji assumed were of the most lofty and pretentious kind, and in public he appeared in all the state and display of royalty.

1674 A.D.

153. **Sivaji invades the Carnatic.** — Sivaji then undertook the most important expedition of his life, the invasion of the Carnatic. It will be remembered that Sivaji's father Shahji had received a jaghir in the Carnatic. Before his death in 1664 he had very much increased his power and possessions, which included Tanjore. He was succeeded by his son Venkaji, and the professed object of Sivaji's invasion was to obtain from Venkaji one half of his father's estates and jewels, which he claimed by the law of inheritance. On his way south he visited Kutb Shah at Golkonda, and entered into a treaty offensive and defensive with him against the Mughals. He passed Madras on his way to the hill fortress of Jinji, which surrendered to him, while another division of his army captured Vellore. Venkaji was soon brought to terms, and agreed to divide the jewels and share the revenue with Sivaji. It should be remembered that Venkaji was the founder of the Mahratta kingdom of Tanjore, which will be frequently mentioned later on. On Sivaji's return march Musaud Khan of Bijapur implored his aid against the Mughals, who under Dilir Khan had infested his capital. Sivaji did not feel himself

1676 A.D.

1679 A.D.

equal to engage in battle with so strong an enemy; but laid siege to the fort of Jalna near the Godavari and plundered it. On his way to Raigarh with the booty Sivaji was intercepted by the Mughals; but by desperate fighting and personal bravery he was enabled to get clear away and reached Putta in safety.

154. Death of Sivaji.—Sivaji's mind was now oppressed with domestic troubles. His son, Sambhaji, a wild, licentious youth, deserted to the enemy, and was received with marked distinction by Dilir Khan, who tried to use him as a means of dividing the Mahrattas into two factions—the one following the father and the other the son. Aurangzeb disapproved of this, and ordered Sambhaji to be sent a prisoner to Delhi; but Sambhaji was allowed to make his escape; and although Sivaji apparently became reconciled to him he was shut up in the fort of Panalla. Sivaji died at Raigarh on the 5th April 1680, in the fifty-third year of his age.

155. Sambhaji—1680-1689.—On the death of Sivaji, a party of the nobles placed Raja Ram, Sivaji's younger son, on the throne. But Sambhaji, escaping from his place of confinement, soon gathered together a party, put Soyera Bai, the mother of Raja Ram, to death, and cast Raja Ram into prison. As had been predicted by Sivaji, much evil to the Mahratta power soon followed. The Mahratta officers that had supported Raja Ram were beheaded. Annaji Datb, a Brahman, and one of the most distinguished of Sivaji's ministers, was put to death; while the celebrated Morar Punt, the Peshwa, was thrown into prison. Sambhaji, throughout his reign, was completely under the influence of his minister Kulusha, a man totally devoid of the qualities necessary for such a high station. The ruinous consequences that followed weakened for a time the Mahratta power.

156. Sambhaji's character and death.—Sambhaji, though possessing none of the genius of his father, was not wanting in ability, nor was he deficient in military valour. He distinguished himself on more than one occasion in his wars against the Portuguese at Goa, and also at the siege of Jinjira, which he tried to take by storm. But when not actually in the field, he gave himself up to the most idle and wicked dissipation. Owing to his lavish prodigality and the incapacity of Kulusha in the management of the finances of the kingdom, the ryots were overburdened with taxation and they fled from the villages. The soldiers left with their pay in arrears took to plundering, while the leaders disgusted with Sambhaji's barbarous cruelties and vices were estranged from him. During the reign of Sambhaji, Aurangzeb invaded the Deccan, 1683; and sent an army under Muazzam into the Konkan; but this army was powerless to dislodge the Mahrattas from their forts. The Mahrattas in turn laid waste the plains; and pestilence and famine forced the Mughals to retreat. On the fall of Bijapur and Golkonda, thousands of Mahrattas who had been employed in the service of those two kingdoms were let loose on the country. Had Sambhaji possessed anything like the capacity of his father, they might readily have been induced to join him; the Mughal camp might have been imperilled; and Aurangzeb might soon have had cause to regret his mistake, in reducing the only two powers in the south of India that were able to keep the Mahrattas in check. But Sambhaji, instead of taking advantage of the opportunity now laid open to him of extending his power, and crippling the Mughals, spent his time in riotous debauchery, until one day he was taken by surprise while drunk at Sangameswar, and, along with his minister, Kulusha, was carried off as a prisoner to Aurangzeb. Aurangzeb offered to spare his life if he would become a Muhammadan. "Tell the Emperor,"

1680 A.D. TO 1689 A.D.

said he, "if he will give me his daughter I will do so." No words more insulting could be addressed to a Muhammadan. Aurangzeb, stirred with anger, ordered a red hot iron to be drawn across Sambhaji's eyes, his tongue to be cut out, and his head to be severed from his body. Sivaji (afterwards known by the nickname Sahu), Sambhaji's son, a little boy of six years of age, was carried off to Delhi and brought up at the Mughal court.

157. **Contests with the Mughals.**—The cruel end of Sambhaji, instead of striking terror into the Mahrattas, roused their vengeance, and drew the leaders more closely together. They held a council, at which Raja Ram was appointed regent, and a unanimous resolution was arrived as to revenge the foul murder. Raja Ram was to hasten to Jinji and carry on the war there, while the other leaders were to defend the forts in the Konkan. Aurangzeb sent Zulfikar Khan in pursuit of Raja Ram. Jinji was besieged. But treachery and corruption had crept into the Mughal army to a terrible extent, and Zulfikar Khan, having a private understanding with Raja Ram, carried on the siege in the most leisurely fashion. When at last he could no longer delay taking the fort without bringing disgrace and ruin upon himself, he contrived to allow Raja Ram to escape. Aurangzeb advanced in person against Satara and captured it. About the same time Raja Ram died, and his widow, Tara Bai, assumed the reins of government. The struggle between the Mahrattas and the Mughals was continued. Before the death of Aurangzeb, which took place in 1707, the Mughal armies had become so disorganised that they were forced to retire before the Mahrattas.

1698 A.D.

1707 A.D.

CHAPTER VIII.

DECLINE AND FALL OF THE MUGHAL EMPIRE.

1707 A.D. TO 1762 A.D.

158. Bahadur Shah.
159. Farrukh Siyar.
160. Muhammad Shah.
161. Nadir Shah's invasion.
162. Massacre at Delhi.
163. Extent of the Empire in 1748.
164. Ahmad Shah's invasion.
165. Shah Alam II.

158. Bahadur Shah—1707-1712.—When Aurangzeb died, the usual fratricidal war that followed the death of a Mughal Emperor broke out. Shah Alam, the eldest son, eventually succeeded under the title of Bahadur Shah; and Zulfikar Khan, who had been viceroy of the Deccan in the reign of Aurangzeb, and to whose influence Bahadur Shah greatly owed his elevation, was appointed prime minister. Bahadur Shah reigned for five years. The early part of his reign was disturbed by the Rajputs, who refused to pay jazyia, and asserted their independence. Bahadur Shah was forced, however, to leave them alone, as all the resources of the empire were required against another people, the Sikhs, whose history will be given in a subsequent chapter. About this time, also, arose Nizam-ul-mulk, the founder of the dynasty of the "Nizams of the Deccan," and Saadut Ali Khan, the founder of the royal family of Oudh. The English, too, appeared on the scene. They were quietly founding Fort William at the mouth of the Ganges, and were soon to have new rights and privileges granted to them. On the death of Bahadur Shah, Jahandar Shah, a debauched young prince, was placed on the throne, and all the family of Bahadur Shah were put to death, except one Farrukh Siyar, a grandson, who fortunately escaped the general massacre and retired to Bengal, where his father had been viceroy.

159. **Farrukh Siyar—1713-1719.**—Jahandar Shah had not been twelve months on the throne when his openly shameless and depraved life turned the people from him, and Farrukh Siyar, taking advantage of this, raised the standard of revolt. He was joined by two Sayyids of power and influence. The one, Sayyid Husain Ali, was governor of Bihar, the other, Sayyid Abdulla, of Allahabad. By their help a large force was collected, and they marched to Delhi. A great battle was fought near Agra. Jahandar Shah and his minister, Zulfikar Khan, fled to Delhi, followed by Farrukh Siyar, who entered the town in triumph, put to the sword the king, his minister, and all the grandees that might be likely to give him trouble, and, amidst the acclamations of the multitude, ascended the throne. He reigned for six years, and during that time struggled continuously to throw off the yoke of the Sayyids, and to rule as an independent monarch. But the power that raised him to the throne was not to be shaken off. On the other hand, the Sayyids, discovering that Farrukh Siyar was plotting their destruction, surrounded his palace, dragged him from the zenana, and put him to death. The Sayyids were now all-powerful, and, within a few months, two infant kings were placed by them on the throne, only to pass away the one after the other into an untimely grave. The Sayyids, "the king-makers" as they have been called, next raised Muhammad Shah to the imperial dignity, and he was the *last* Emperor that sat on the peacock throne.

160. **Muhammad Shah—1719-1748.**—The Sayyids had hitherto been all-powerful, but now Nizam-ul-mulk and Saadat Ali Khan uniting against them, they were soon got out of the way. Husain Ali was assassinated. Sayyid Abdulla was defeated at Shahpur between Delhi and Agra. Nizam-ul-mulk, after occupying the office of vazir for a short time, returned to the Deccan, where he virtually set

up an independent state. Saadat Ali Khan established himself as sovereign of Oudh. The whole of Muhammad Shah's reign is a history of plots and counterplots between his viceroys, and of inroads made on the empire by the Mahrattas. The latter, indeed, became so powerful, that the Imperial Government paid them "chauth," one-fourth part of the revenue, to keep them away from Delhi.

161. Invasion of Nadir Shah.—While the country was in this pitiable condition, Nadir Shah, crossing the Indus, shook the empire to its very centre. Originally a freebooter, he had usurped the throne of Persia and conquered Afghanistan. He now invaded India, and coming up with the Mughal army at Karnal gained a complete victory. Plunder, not conquest, however, was the object of his invasion, and when Muhammad Shah offered him a large sum of money if he would leave the kingdom, he willingly consented to do so and advanced to Delhi to receive the treasure. Then there took place one of those frightful massacres that make one shudder at the depravity and cruelty of man's nature.

1739 A.D.

162. Massacre at Delhi.—Nadir Shah was magnificently entertained by Muhammad Shah and lodged in the palace. From some unknown cause a report was spread abroad that he had died. The people of Delhi at once rose against his soldiers and several were killed. Next day, Nadir Shah, enraged at seeing the dead bodies of his men, let loose his army on the city, and man, woman and child were unmercifully put to the sword. Nadir Shah sat in a mosque while the deadly work went on, and not until Muhammad Shah, sick with the sight of the dead, and heart-broken at hearing the groans of the dying, begged of him to have mercy did Nadir Shah give orders to his soldiers to desist. The number of the slain can never

be known; but it was many thousands. The city was plundered. The peacock throne and all the palace jewels became the spoil of the conqueror. The treasury of Sadat Ali Khan, who had been so insulted by Nadir Shah, that in very shame he had poisoned himself, was confiscated, and Nizam-ul-mulk and all the grandees were compelled to pay large contributions to the conqueror. The amount of money that the invader carried away was immense. He gave all his soldiers three months' pay, and for a year remitted all taxation throughout the Persian empire.

163. Extent of the Empire in 1748.—The invasions of Nadir Shah inflicted a mortal blow on the Mughal empire. Muhammad Shah lived till 1748, but he was an Emperor almost only in name. The only provinces that remained in the occupation of the Government were part of the upper Duab, and the districts south of the Satlej. Bengal, Orissa and Bihar had come into the possession of a Tartar, Alivirdi Khan by name, and his successors now ruled there. Oudh was under its own king, and the Rohillas, under Muhammad Ali, an Afghan, had set up an independent state in Rohilkhand in 1744. The Panjab had been surrendered to Ahmad Shah. Gujarat was overrun by the Mahrattas. The south of India had been recovered by the Hindus, except those portions belonging to the Nizam's family.

164. Invasion of Ahmad Shah Abdali.—During the reigns of three successors of Muhammad Shah, Ahmad Shah invaded India six times. He was the chief of the Afghan tribe, Abdali, and on the death of Nadir Shah had laid hold of the kingdom of Kandahar. 1747 A.D.
In his first invasion he was defeated at Sarhind. The Mahrattas, in their turn, under the celebrated Raganath Rao, invaded the Panjab, which in a

subsequent expedition had been ceded to Ahmad Shah. The struggle was a struggle between nationalities. The Jats joined the Mahrattas. The viceroy of Oudh and the Rohillas aided Ahmad Shah. At Panipat (the third battle of Panipat) the armies met, and the Mahrattas sustained such a crushing defeat that their power was overthrown, and all expectation of their becoming the paramount power in India was at an end. In the campaign they lost no fewer than two hundred thousand men. Ahmad Shah advanced to Delhi, and having placed the Afghans in power, returned to Kandahar and never visited India again.

1761 A.D.

165. Shah Alam II.—1761-1803. — The Afghan power was now, apparently, in a fair way of being restored; but four years before the battle of Panipat, another great battle, Plassey, had been fought and won by the English in Bengal, and since that time the English had been steadily adding to their conquests.

1757 A.D.

While Afghan and Hindu were fighting for supremacy at Panipat, Shah Alam II., son of Muhammad Shah, was vainly trying to oppose the English in Bihar. In fact we may consider that the epoch of the battle of Panipat marks the end of the Mughal Period in Indian history. It will be convenient, however, to say here how the Mughal dynasty was finally extinguished. Shah Alam II. afterwards became a pensioner of the English, and resided at Allahabad. Meanwhile, the struggle between the Hindu and the Afghan went on, till in 1771 the Mahrattas, under Mahadhji Sindia, again entered Delhi and drove Zabita Khan, the Afghan ruler, from the city. Shah Alam II. immediately left the English protection and put himself into the hands of Sindia. From this time the Mahrattas remained masters of Delhi till 1803, with the exception of an interval of a few months in 1788, when Ghulam Kadir, son of Zabita Khan, obtained

possession of the city. On that occasion, Shah Alam's eyes were put out because Ghulam Kadir thought he was concealing his treasure. In 1803 Shah Alam was finally rescued from the hands of the Mahrattas by General Lake, and left to dwell in the palace, supported by a handsome pension from the British Government. His grandson, Bahadur Shah, was found guilty of taking part in the mutiny of 1857 and in the massacre of the English; and he, the last nominal Emperor of Delhi, was transported to Rangoon, where he died in 1862.

CHAPTER IX.

MAHRATTA HISTORY TO THE THIRD BATTLE OF PANIPAT.

166. Sahu.
167. Balaji Viswanath, First Peshwa.
168. Baji Rao, Second Peshwa.
169. Baji Rao's policy.
170. Convention of Seronje.
171. Balaji Baji Rao, Third Peshwa.
172. The Peshwa really the Sovereign.
173. Ahmad Shah Abdali.

166. Sahu—1708-1748.—Tara Bai continued to rule in the name of her son, Sivaji, until 1708. In that year Sahu was set at liberty, and, though Tara Bai affected to believe that he was an impostor, and took the field against him, her supporters were easily allured from her side, and Sahu had little difficulty in advancing to Satara, and placing himself on the throne. Sahu was a man of a very different stamp from either his father or his grandfather. Brought up in the imperial zenana at Delhi, rendered effeminate by indulging in all the luxury of that luxurious court, he was little fitted to reign over such a predatory and warlike people as the Mahrattas. During the first five years of his reign anarchy prevailed, and the Mahratta power, from its own internal dissensions

and disunions, must have fallen to pieces had there not arisen one amongst them who was able to re-unite the different parties, to bring order out of confusion, and to establish a settled system of government in the country. This man was Balaji Viswanath. He was appointed Peshwa in 1714, and, as he was the first to raise this office to be the supreme power in the Mahratta kingdom, he is known in history as the first Peshwa.

1714 A.D.

167. Balaji Viswanath, First Peshwa 1714–1720.—In the hands of Balaji Viswanath and his able successors Sahu became a mere puppet. Sahu was fond of fishing, and hawking, and hunting. He hated business. If his ministers showed him due respect and professed obedience to him, that was all he cared for. The Brahman ministers, therefore, paid him the most profound reverence, and professed the utmost submission. All orders were issued in Sahu's name, and made to appear as if they emanated from him. At the same time, the Peshwa and his ministers became the real authority. It was the Peshwa that issued commissions to the leaders to collect chauth in Malwa, Gujarat and the Deccan. It was the Peshwa that entered into a treaty with the Emperor, whereby the latter is supposed to have paid tribute to the Mahrattas in order to preserve his territories around Delhi from being plundered. The Peshwa was a Brahman, and all the offices in the state were held by Brahmans, and became hereditary. Thus, a powerful Brahmanical hierarchy grew up around the king, which retained in its own hand all the power of the state, and afterwards assumed kingly power. While Balaji Viswanath was Peshwa, the Mahratta power was considerably extended. He joined Sayyid Husain Ali Khan and marched to Delhi against Farrukh Siyar. In return for his services he received the right to collect chauth throughout the

Deccan, and was made absolute sovereign of the districts possessed by Sivaji at the time of his death. Balaji died in 1720 soon after the Sayyids had been overthrown in the battle of Shahpur, and was succeeded by his son Baji Rao, the second and greatest of the Peshwas.

168. Baji Rao, Second Peshwa—1720-1740.—Baji Rao inherited all his father's ability as a statesman, and having been trained to habits of business and bred a soldier, he was enabled during his administration to extend considerably the Mahratta power. His policy was to keep the Mahratta chiefs constantly employed far off from Satara collecting chauth, and as they did this under commissions they received from Satara, and had to render accounts to the Peshwa, they all became bound to the central power, while individually they were each of them so weak that they were unable to disturb the Government to any extent. It was during this time that those Mahratta families, who afterwards established themselves as independent powers, began to come into notice. The family of the Gaikwar of Baroda arose in Gujarat; Holkar and Sindia in Malwa; and the Bhonsle family, the same family to which Sivaji belonged, established themselves in Barar.

169. Baji Rao's policy.—During the whole of the administration of Baji Rao the Mahrattas were divided more or less into parties. Sahu was Raja, but Sambhaji, son of Raja Ram, had set up a rival court at Kolhapur. The able and wily Nizam-ul-mulk, the founder of the Nizams of the Deccan, took advantage of this, and, by supporting Sambhaji, hoped, by dividing the Mahrattas into two factions, to establish his own power more firmly in the Deccan. But Baji Rao was more than a match for Nizam-ul-mulk. Baji Rao's great aim was to extend the

Mahratta power in Hindustan. He saw the weak, disordered state into which the Mughal power had fallen. He saw the jealousy, if not hatred, that existed between Nizam-ul-mulk and the court at Delhi. He tried to arouse a spirit of ambition in Sahu, and in an eloquent speech delivered in his presence said, "Now is our time to drive strangers from the land of the Hindus, and to acquire immortal renown. By directing our efforts to Hindustan, the Mahratta flag in your reign shall fly from the Krishna to Attock." "You shall plant it on the Himalayas," exclaimed the Raja, "you are indeed a worthy son of a worthy father."

170. **Convention of Seronje.**—The Mahrattas invaded Malwa and Gujarat, and levied contributions. Mulhar Rao Holkar made incursions beyond Agra, while Baji Rao himself advanced to Delhi. The attempts of the Emperor to check the Mahrattas were of the most feeble kind, and the demands of the Mahrattas increased as their power increased. A right to levy chauth in the Deccan was conceded to Baji Rao. But to grant one thing to Baji Rao only made him demand more. The court at Delhi was therefore forced to bestir themselves and to put forth their strength against this irrepressible enemy. Nizam-ul-mulk was recalled to Delhi, and the fullest powers were granted him to drive the Mahrattas from Malwa and Gujarat. But Baji Rao came up with him at Bhopal, surrounded his army and forced him to

1738 A.D. sign a convention at Seronje, by which Nizam-ul-mulk promised "to grant to Baji Rao the whole of Malwa, and the complete sovereignty of the territory between the Chambal and the Narbada; to obtain a confirmation of this from the Emperor, and to pay a subsidy of fifty lakhs of rupees to cover the Peshwa's expenses"—an agreement which Nizam-ul-mulk never kept. Shortly after this Nadir Shah invaded India.

At the same time the Mahrattas captured Basin, and thereby crippled the Portuguese power. Baji Rao subsequently invaded the Deccan, but with little success. A few months thereafter he died.

171. Balaji Baji Rao, Third Peshwa—1740-1761. —Baji Rao left two sons, Balaji Baji Rao and Raganath Rao (Raghoba), afterwards so well known in the wars with the English. Balaji Baji Rao succeeded as Peshwa but not without opposition. The Bhonsle family especially were anxious to put an end to the Brahman supremacy. Sahu had acknowledged himself a vassal of the Emperor, and Balaji Baji Rao, to strengthen his own position, obtained from the Emperor confirmation in his office of Peshwa. Sahu died in 1748. Immediately there was intriguing as to who was to be his successor. Tara Bai produced a child, Raja Ram, whom she declared to be the son of Sivaji II. The widow of Sahu, fearing the power Tara Bai would have as regent were Raja Ram placed on the throne, supported the family of Kolhapur, while Balaji Baji Rao resolved to take advantage of those dissensions to secure the power to himself. Tara Bai had great influence amongst the Mahrattas. Raja Ram was a lineal descendant of the great Sivaji, and would, therefore, be supported by many of the leaders on that account. Balaji Baji Rao resolved to support Raja Ram, to set aside Tara Bai as regent, and to so take the whole power of the state into his own hands. Raja Ram was appointed king. Balaji Baji Rao then produced a deed, purporting to have been signed by Sahu, granting to himself the guardianship of the Mahratta kingdom, so long as he kept a descendant of Sivaji on the throne. The Government was removed from Satara to Puna. Tara Bai, wild with rage, refused to acknowledge Balaji Baji Rao as regent, stirred up Raja Ram to assert his independence, and when she found him too feeble for her purpose, cast him

into a dungeon in Satara, and kept him there till her death in 1761.

172. **The Peshwa really the Sovereign.**—Balaji Baji Rao was now Sovereign in reality, though he continued to reign under the old name of Peshwa. During the reign of Balaji Baji Rao the Mahratta power attained its greatest limits and received its most crushing blow. The Bhonsle family overran Orissa and penetrated into Bengal. Mulhar Rao Holkar entered Bundelkhand; and Raganath Rao marched into Lahor in triumph. [illegible] and the Carnatic were invaded by the Peshwa in person, and tribute was levied from both. Geriah, a pirate fort on the west coast, was reduced by the English and the Mahrattas. Salabat Jang and Nizam Ali were
1760 A.D. defeated in the great battle of Udgir, and compelled to give up to the Mahrattas the forts of Daulatabad, Asirgarh and Bijapur; the possession of Ahmadnagar, and the greater part of the province of Aurangabad. The Muhammadan power in the Deccan was thus reduced to the narrowest limits, and over the whole of the imperial territory chauth had been promised by Muhammad Shah.

173. **Ahmad Shah Abdali.**—The Mahratta power had now reached its zenith. The conquest of the
1760 A.D. Panjab and the capture of Lahor brought in upon the Mahrattas an enemy that shook their kingdom to its centre, and this date may be taken as marking the beginning of the decline and fall of the Mahratta power. Ahmad Shah Abdali had secured to himself the Panjab and Multan, and had appointed his son viceroy. When he heard of Lahor having been captured by the Mahrattas, he collected a large army and marched into India to recover his lost possessions. Coming up with Mulhar Rao Holkar, he forced him to retreat.

Sweeping on to Delhi and crossing the Jumna, he took Sindia by surprise, and destroyed two-thirds of his army. When the news of those disasters reached the Deccan, Sivadas Rao, the hero of Udgir, was appointed to the command, and set out with twenty thousand horse and ten thousand artillery and infantry to recover the lost reputation of the Mahrattas in Hindustan. The war became a war of nationalities—of religions. Were the Hindus or the Afghans to be the rulers of India? The Rajputs, Pindaris and Jats flocked in vast numbers to the Mahratta standards; the Rohillas and Shuja-ud-daulah, viceroy of Oudh, joined Ahmad Shah. The two armies met at Panipat. The Mahratta army consisted of fifty-five thousand horse, fifteen thousand infantry, and two hundred thousand Pindaris and followers, with two hundred guns. The Muhammadan army consisted of forty-seven thousand horse, thirty-eight thousand foot, and seventy guns. The Mahrattas took up an entrenched position and waited for Ahmad Shah to attack them. This he was too clever to do, however, and he practically blockaded the Mahratta forces, and reduced them to the utmost extremities from want of provisions. 1761 A.D. At last Sivadas Rao wrote to Shuja-ud-daulah of Oudh, "The cup is now full to the brim and cannot hold another drop," and the Mahrattas prepared to conquer or die. From early morning till afternoon the battle raged with the utmost fury, and for a time it seemed as if the Hindus were to be victorious. But the Afghans were stronger physically than the Hindus of the South, and in the close, protracted, hand-to-hand struggle that took place the Hindus were over-matched. Viswas Rao, the son of Balaji Baji Rao, was killed, and Sivadas Rao disappeared, never to be heard of again. The Jats deserted the Mahrattas in a body. Mulhar Rao Holkar treacherously withdrew his forces from the field. The battle was lost. Thousands of the Mahrattas were cut

down in the flight. Many took refuge in the village of Panipat. Next morning the village was surrounded. The fugitives were taken, drawn up in line and beheaded. The women and children were carried off as slaves. As many as two hundred thousand Mahrattas perished in the campaign. There was wailing and mourning in every Mahratta home, and a gloom overhung the whole of Mahrashtra. When the news reached Balaji Baji Rao it broke his heart, and he died before the end of the year. The Mahratta power never recovered the losses of Panipat, and from it we may date the collapse of the "Hindu revival," which seemed at one time likely to result in the establishment of a great Hindu empire in India.

Leading Dates of the Mughal Period.

	A.D.
First Battle of Panipat	1526
Battle of Sikri	1527
Battle of Baxar	1539
Sher Shah killed at Kalingar	1545
Second Battle of Panipat	1556
Akbar conquers Rajputana	1567
Aurangabad founded by Malik Ambar	1599
Death of Akbar	1605
Sir T. Roe, ambassador from James I.	1615
Shah Jahan defeats Malik Ambar	1621
Jahangir taken prisoner at the Jhelum	1626
Birth of Sivaji	1627
Ahmadnagar extinguished	1637
Aurangzeb proclaimed Emperor	1658
Sivaji assumes the ensigns of royalty	1674
Aurangzeb defeats the Satnarainis at Narnul	1676
Death of Sivaji	1680
Aurangzeb invades the Deccan	1683

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Magellan, and sailing thence across the Pacific landed at the Spice Islands. He was well received there, and he returned home by the Cape of Good Hope with a rich cargo. With the exception of Magellan, Drake was the first man that had sailed round the world, and his return to England was hailed with the greatest joy. Voyages of discovery then became all the rage. Thomas Cavendish, a gentleman of great property, sold his estates that he might fit out an expedition and sail round the world as Drake had done. At the same time a company named the Levant Company tried to carry on trade with India by way of Syria and the Mediterranean; but owing to the great expense of transporting their goods, they were unable to compete in the market with the Portuguese, who carried their merchandise by the Cape. The only route therefore left open to the English was by the Cape, and they resolved to go that way even though they ran the risk of having to fight the Portuguese in eastern waters.

175. Establishment of the East India Company.—In 1599 an association, with a subscribed capital of £30,000, was formed for trading to the East, and on the last day of that year a charter was granted by Queen Elizabeth to "*the Governor and company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies*," giving them a monopoly of trade in those regions for fifteen years—a concession that was extended in perpetuity by Elizabeth's successor, James I. This was the origin of the East India Company. The first expedition sailed to the Moluccas. The commander was not very particular as to the means taken to obtain merchandise. When he found he could not purchase pepper and spices to advantage, he seized a Portuguese ship richly laden with calicoes and other valuable goods, transferred the merchandise to his own ships and sailed for England. In subsequent expeditions the English became mere pirates, now attacking

1599 A.D.

the Portuguese, now capturing Chinese vessels laden with silk. In 1607 Captain Hawkins was sent out to
1607 A.D. India to solicit commercial privileges from the Emperor Jahangir; and, as has already been mentioned, in 1615 Sir Thomas Roe visited the great Mughal with a similar object. By this time permission had been obtained to erect factories at Surat, Ahmadabad and Kambay; and in 1612 the Company had been formed into a Joint Stock Company, managed by a Governor and Directors. The Company had many difficulties to contend with. The Portuguese and the Dutch, who possessed settlements in the east prior to the arrival of the English, could not but regard the latter with suspicion and hatred. They put every obstacle in the way of the English obtaining goods. The Portuguese attacked their ships; but as at this period the naval power of that people was weak compared with that of England, they invariably suffered defeat. The hatred of the Dutch culminated in
1623 A.D. the "*Massacre of Amboyna*" when ten Englishmen were executed on a groundless charge of conspiracy, and in spite of a friendly treaty that had been concluded between the Dutch and English Companies. Nor was the Company disturbed by foreign powers alone. Private adventurers sprang up, who cried out against the trade of the east being monopolised, and who persisted in carrying on trade there, though it was unlawful for them to do so. To these adventurers, who were for the most part pirate captains, the Company gave the name of "*interlopers.*" A rival company was also started. But the strivings and contentions between the two companies were so disastrous to both that they amalgamated under the name of "The United East India
1708 A.D. Company." The United Company was formed, as the first one had been, on the joint stock system, with a certain number of shareholders. The shareholders elected twenty-four of their number as Directors,

to arrange and manage all matters connected with the Company's trade and policy; and the Directors of the Company continued to govern British India till 1858, when their authority was transferred to the Crown.

176. The Presidency Towns.—Surat for a considerable time remained the principal seat of the English settlement in India. In 1668, however, the island of Bombay, which had come to Charles II. as part of the dowry of his Queen, the Portuguese Princess Catherine [redacted] handed over to the Company, and the [redacted]cy on the west coast was transferred [redacted] town. The earliest settlement on the Coromandel Coast was at Armagon, some miles south of Nellore. At Masulipatam a factory was afterwards erected. The Company were likewise desirous of having some place of strength to protect their trade, and when the Raja of Chandragiri gave them a piece of land at Madraspatam, they erected a fort there, which in 1654 was made a separate Presidency and called Fort St. George. The Dutch had previously established a settlement at Pulicat. The French, too, anxious to have a share in the good things going in the East, formed a company, established factories at Surat and Masulipatam, and bought a piece of land from the Sultan of Bijapur on which they built the town of Pondicherry, which soon became a very prosperous settlement. The English were at this time at war with the French in Europe, and being jealous of the French influence on the Coromandel Coast purchased from the Raja of Narsinga, Tegnapatam, a place only twelve miles south of Pondicherry, and built a fort there, Fort St. David, which, as we shall see, soon became famous in Indian history. 1625 A.D.

It was some years after the English had established themselves at Madras that they obtained a footing in

Bengal. An English medical gentleman having cured Shah Jahan of a dangerous illness, the Emperor, out of gratitude, allowed the English to erect a factory on the Hugli. From this year ships regularly visited
1656 A.D. the Hugli, though the trade was still under the superintendence of the authorities at Fort St. George. The Company met with opposition from the native rulers of Bengal such as they had not experienced elsewhere, and, misjudging the strength of the power with which they would have to contend, resolved to wage war against the Great Nawab of Bengal. Ten armed vessels of soldiers arrived in the Hugli; but they were repulsed. Subsequently the English burnt forty ships in the harbour of Balasore. Aurangzeb was then Emperor. Enraged at this violent proceeding, he ordered a general attack on all the Company's settlements. Surat, Masulipatam, and Vizagapatam were soon reduced and Bombay was besieged. The English, thereupon, sued for peace in the most humble way, and Aurangzeb desirous of retaining the commercial advantages his country obtained from traffic with foreign lands, allowed the trade to be resumed.

177. Policy of the Company.—From this time the policy of the Company was changed. They resolved to have something more than the privilege of erecting factories. "It was laid down as a determinate object of policy *that independence was to be established in India, and dominion acquired.*" The Company, therefore, held themselves ready to purchase any land they could
1698 A.D. obtain, and secured the Zemindarship of Calcutta where they erected a fort, called Fort William, which was made the seat of a Presidency in 1707.

CHAPTER II.

ESTABLISHMENT OF FRENCH SUPREMACY IN SOUTHERN INDIA.

1740 A.D. TO 1750 A.D.

178. War of the Austrian Succession.
179. Fort St. George taken by the French.
180. Dupleix.
181. The Battle of St. Thomé.
182. Political condition of the Deccan in 1748.
183. Dupleix supreme in Southern India.

178. War of the Austrian Succession.—For many years after the building of Fort William the English were allowed to carry on their trade in peace. Wars were raging around them. The Mahrattas were scouring the country and levying chauth from Gujarat to Bengal, from Tanjore to Delhi. Nadir Shah was crossing the Indus and capturing Delhi, massacring the inhabitants, and carrying off the peacock throne to Persia. But the English were little disturbed by these events. They were busy over their cash books and ledgers, and as they were always careful to pay their rent they were allowed to go on amassing their profits free from molestation. This quiet was disturbed in consequence of events in Europe. In 1740 the war of the Austrian Succession broke out, in which England and France took opposite sides. The French resolved to attack England in India. Fort St. George was at that time the most important settlement on the Coromandel Coast. Outside the fort native villages had sprung up with amazing rapidity. Thousands of weavers had settled there and the trade had become very considerable.

179. Fort St. George taken by the French.—In 1746 a French fleet, commanded by Labourdonnais, Governor of the Mauritius and Bourbon, appeared off

Madras. The English were ill-prepared to receive them. They had yet to learn the art of war. After a resistance of five days, during which two or three houses
1746 A.D. were destroyed and four or five men killed, the English surrendered their fort and warehouses. Labourdonnais sailed for Pondicherry, promising to restore the fort to the English on their paying a moderate ransom.

180. Dupleix.—At this time a man of great genius and ambition, Dupleix, was Governor of Pondicherry. He, like the Portuguese Albuquerque, had conceived the idea of founding an Empire in India, and the first step towards this was driving the English out of India. To this end he accused Labourdonnais of having taken bribes from the English, and refused to acknowledge the engagements made by him.* Dupleix seized all the booty he could find in Fort St. George, and, carrying the English and their Governor off as prisoners of war, returned to Pondicherry in triumph. The effect of this was for a time disastrous to the English. It lowered them as a fighting people in the eyes of the natives, and added greatly to the power and prestige of the French.

181. The Battle of St. Thomé.—The Nawab of the Carnatic was by no means pleased at the success of the French, for he had no desire to see a strong European military power established in his territory. He therefore sent ten thousand troops who, he expected, would easily capture Madras. But they were met at St. Thomé by a French force of only four hundred men with two guns, and were utterly routed. Then was again seen, what

* When Labourdonnais returned to France he was thrown into prison, where he was kept for three years. He died soon after his liberation.

formerly had been discovered by the Portuguese at Cochin, that hordes of ill-disciplined Asiatics were powerless in a contest with the well-trained arms of Europe. Another and important discovery—that natives when drilled and led by European officers made splendid soldiers—was soon afterwards made by Dupleix, and both the English and the French at once took advantage of the discovery to raise regiments of Sepahis, or, as the English called them, Sepoys. The English Government was transferred to Fort St. David. The war was carried on with varying success, until in India, as in Europe, it was brought to a close by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. By this treaty Madras was restored to the Company.

182. Political condition of the Deccan in 1748.—The year 1748 was an eventful year in the history of India. Muhammad Shah died at Delhi, Sahu died at Satara, and the rule of the Peshwas began. Ahmad Shah invaded the Punjab. The great Nizam-ul-Mulk died at Haidarabad. The death of Nizam-ul-Mulk led to important events in the Peninsula. While the Mughal power was in the ascendant and the Emperor at Delhi had the means to enforce his commands, all the viceroys in the provinces held their appointments subject to his will and could be dismissed at pleasure. But on the decline of the Mughal Empire after the death of Aurangzeb, these viceroys set up independent states, and though they sent presents to their nominal suzerain at Delhi, and paid large sums to obtain titles or honours from him, they became in reality independent hereditary sovereigns. Nizam-ul-Mulk had established his power at Haidarabad and claimed authority over the Carnatic. The first Nawab of the Carnatic had been appointed by him. On the death of the Nawab an

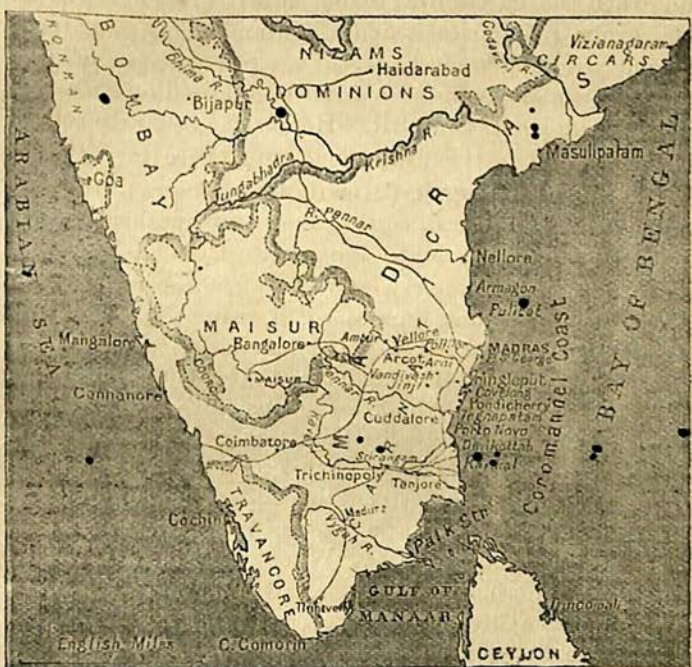
1748 A.D.

1712 A.D.

adopted son had succeeded without making any reference to Haidarabad. Nizam-ul-Mulk therefore marched to Arcot and appointed a new Nawab of the Carnatic, named Anwar-ud-din (1734). By the death of Nizam-ul-Mulk, Anwar-ud-din lost his supporter, and a certain Chanda Sahib, a member of the previous Carnatic family, applied to the French to place him on the throne of the Carnatic. At the same time a dispute arose regarding the succession at Haidarabad. The eldest son of Nizam-ul-Mulk was at Delhi. The second son, Nasir Jang, seized the treasury and won the army to his side by a lavish distribution of money; while Muzaffar Jang, a grandson, produced a will by which the Nizam had bequeathed the kingdom to him. Muzaffar Jang joined Chanda Sahib and applied to the French for help. Nothing could be more pleasing to Dupleix than this, since he saw that it gave him an opportunity of furthering his great project of founding a European empire in India. Could he be successful in this contest, he might take the place of the Great Mughal in Southern India, and have a Nawab of the Carnatic and a Viceroy of the Deccan ruling under him. The united armies marched into the Carnatic, defeated Anwar-ud-din at Ambur, and left him dead on the field. They then advanced to Arcot, and Chanda Sahib was proclaimed Nawab of the Carnatic. Muhammad Ali, the son of Anwar-ud-din, fled with the remnant of his army to Trichinopoly.

1749 A.D.

183. Dupleix supreme in Southern India.—Good fortune still followed Dupleix. Jinji, the strongest fortress in the Carnatic—the scene of many a contest between Mahratta and Mughal—was taken by his distinguished general, Bussy. Nasir Jang was shot by his own followers. Chanda Sahib and Muzaffar Jang proceeded to Pondicherry where they were received with the wildest joy. Salutes were fired, and a "Te Deum" was sung. Muzaffar



It occurred to Clive that if the English could capture Arcot, it would force Chanda Sahib to send large detachments from Trichinopoly for its recovery, and that in this way the siege of Trichinopoly might be raised. He therefore suggested that an expedition should be sent against Arcot; the authorities at Madras agreed to the proposal and appointed him to command the expedition. With two hundred Europeans and three hundred sepoys Clive marched from Madras. He had only eight officers, and of those only two had ever been in action, and four of the others were mere clerks like himself who, fired by his spirit, had taken to arms. The weather was stormy; but through thunder and lightning and rain they pressed on,

and when the garrison at Arcot heard of their advance they evacuated the fort, and Clive and his men entered without striking one blow. The fort was in Clive's hands, but he knew he would not be allowed to remain in undisturbed possession of it. He at once began to collect provisions, repair the walls, and to prepare for a siege. The garrison having recovered from their panic and having been reinforced, so that they now numbered three thousand men, approached the city. Clive issued from the fort during the night, slew great numbers of them and returned without the loss of a man. The result of the capture of Arcot was as Clive had anticipated. When the news reached Trichinopoly that the capital and favourite residence of the Nawab was in the hands of the English, there was the wildest excitement. Chanda Sahib at once sent an army of four thousand men under his son, Raja Sahib, which was strengthened by one hundred and fifty French sent from Pondicherry, and other forces that Raja Sahib met on the way. When he reached Arcot his army was ten thousand strong. By this time the little garrison under Clive had been greatly reduced by sickness. There were but one hundred and twenty Europeans and sepoys remaining, and of the eight officers only four survived. For fifty days this little band held out. Hunger pressed them. The sepoys came to their commander, "not to complain of their scanty fare, but to propose that all the grain should be given to the Europeans, who required more nourishment than the natives of Asia. The rice-water, they said, was enough for themselves." The bravery of the defence astonished the besiegers. They had been accustomed to look upon the English with contempt. They had seen them carried off prisoners by the French. They had believed they had none of the qualities of warriors. They now saw they had made a mistake. Morari Rao, a Mahratta leader, who was at Ambur, and had been watching the struggle, declared

he would help the English since he saw they could help themselves, and advanced to their aid with six thousand men. Raja Sahib heard of his approach. He threatened Clive, and when menaces were of no avail, he tried to bribe him. But Clive rejected his bribes with scorn and defied him to do his utmost. Raja Sahib determined to storm the fort. The day selected was during the Muharram. The Muhammadan army, filled with religious enthusiasm and drunk with bhang, rushed on the trenches with scaling ladders in their hands; but they were repulsed at every point. The struggle lasted for an hour. Four hundred of the enemy lay dead. The garrison lost but *five* men. When the sun rose next day the Muhammadan army was gone. The siege was raised. 1751 A.D.

187. **Clive takes the field.**—Reinforcements were immediately sent to Clive from Madras and he took the field. He effected a junction with Morari Rao, and hastened to attack Raja Sahib, who was at the head of a force of five thousand sepoys and three hundred French. He came up with Raja Sahib at Arni, defeated him, and got possession of his baggage and cannon. Clive's army was greatly strengthened by six hundred sepoys who deserted from Raja Sahib and were taken into the English service. Conjeeveram fell without a blow. Clive returned to Fort St. David. The object of the campaign had been gained. The siege of Trichinopoly languished. Muhammad Ali was acknowledged Nawab of the Carnatic. 1751 A.D.

188. **Dupleix-fattih-abad destroyed.** — Had Clive had full charge of the war, or had the other English officers possessed anything of his energy and ability, it would soon have been brought to a close. But the natives said that Clive's soldiers were different from the

other English soldiers, and while they fled from Clive they were not afraid in his absence to advance even against Fort St. George and to lay waste and plunder European residences in the suburbs. Clive hastened from Fort St. David and again defeated Raja Sahib, killing more than one hundred of the French that were in his army. On the way Clive passed Dupleix-fattih-abad and razed the pillar and town to the ground. The pillar with its vaunting inscription had been set up to dazzle the natives and to impress them with the greatness of the French power. No measure could tend more to lower this power in the eyes of the Hindus than the destruction of the city and pillar that had been erected to proclaim it.

169. Surrender of the French and Chanda Sahib at Trichinopoly.—Elated by these successes the Governor of Madras determined to send a strong detachment to relieve Trichinopoly, which was still besieged. At this time Major Lawrence, a very distinguished officer, returned from England and assumed the chief command. Clive accompanied him to Trichinopoly. The recent successes of the English brought them many allies. Morari Rao had already joined them. The Regent of Mysore sent fourteen thousand men; and troops were sent by the Raja of Tanjore. The army besieging Trichinopoly retreated to Srirangam, an island formed by branches of the Koleroon and the Kaveri, and was in its turn besieged. Attempts were made by the French at Pondicherry to relieve it, but without success. Chanda Sahib surrendered to the Raja of Tanjore, who promised to spare his life. But the Raja basely violated his promise and put him to death. The French also surrendered. The officers were allowed to go on parole, *i.e.*, they were allowed to go free on a promise that they would not take up arms again during the war. The

May 1752.

soldiers, four hundred in number, were taken prisoners to Fort St. David.

190. **Siege of Trichinopoly renewed.**—The English were for the moment triumphant in the Carnatic. But a quarrel soon broke out between the English and their allies as to the possession of Trichinopoly, which ended in the Regent of Mysore and Morari Rao going over to the French, and the Raja of Tanjore retiring to his home. Major Lawrence defeated the French at Bahur. Clive with a band of raw recruits and five hundred newly levied sepoys took Covelong and Chingleput and soon afterwards returned to England. Meanwhile the French, strengthened by the Mahrattas and Mysore troops, again laid siege to Trichinopoly. Trichinopoly was the key of the Carnatic, because it was at the junction of the great routes north and south, and east and west, and also commanded the river Kaveri. Could Dupleix capture it he might accomplish his threat and reduce Madras to a fishing village. For eighteen months the allied armies surrounded the city, and during that time much valour was displayed on both sides.

191. **Cession of the Northern Circars to the French.**—While the contending forces were thus nearly equally balanced in the Carnatic, the French were accomplishing great things in the Deccan. Bussy, as we have seen, had accompanied Salabat Jang to Haidarabad. To Bussy Salabat Jang owed his throne. Without Bussy he could not keep it. He therefore ceded to the French an extensive range of territory on the coast of Coromandel and Orissa, including the Northern Circars, for the support of the French troops. The French thus acquired a larger territory in India than had ever been possessed by any European power. This new territory, with land

formerly ceded by Muzaffar Jang to Dupleix, extended from the Gundlacama northward to the pagoda of Jagannath, some six hundred miles, and yielded a revenue of eighty lakhs annually.

192. Treaty of Pondicherry. Fall of Dupleix.— Meanwhile, this war between the French and the English in India led to dissensions between their respective Governments in Europe. Since the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle the English and the French had been at peace in Europe. This war in India was therefore an anomaly, a thing that the people in England could not well understand. The English were desirous of peace. The operations at Trichinopoly had been as yet very indecisive and might still be very prolonged. Trade was being interfered with. The English offered to acknowledge Salabat Jang as Viceroy of the Deccan, if the French would acknowledge Muhammad Ali as Nawab of the Carnatic. But Dupleix claimed to be the Nawab of the Carnatic himself, and he would enter into no agreement without that being acknowledged.

Nothing was left for it but an appeal to the Home authorities. The English Directors called on the English Government to take up the quarrel as a national one. The French Directors grumbled that these wars were interfering with their profits. The English blamed Dupleix as being the cause of the war; for it was by his money that Chanda Sahib had been liberated from Satara. The French disapproved of the system of encroachment followed by Dupleix, which, while it added to his glory, emptied the coffers of the Company. Dupleix therefore was doomed. He must be sacrificed to prevent a war between the two countries. A French envoy was sent out to supersede him and make peace with the English Company. At Pondicherry a treaty was signed, by which both sides agreed to renounce all native

governments, and to give up interfering with native states. All territory that the French possessed in excess of that held by the English was to be restored. Dupleix returned to France a ruined and broken-hearted man. He survived his disgrace nine years, and died in abject poverty on the 10th November 1764. A peace had been concluded. But it was soon to be broken. The English felt it their duty to establish Muhammad Ali as Nawab of the Carnatic and assist him against the Paligars and others that refused to acknowledge his authority. The French retained possession of the Northern Circars and when Salabat Jang, acting on the advice of his nobles, tried to throw off the control of Bussy, the latter marched to Haidarabad and quickly put down the opposition. 1755 A.D.

193. Capture of Geriah.—By this time Clive had returned to India as Governor of Fort St. David. The first war Clive was engaged in on his return was against a pirate fort named Geriah, situated on the Malabar coast. Early in the century a pirate chief of the name of Angria began to scour the seas, and during the past few years his fleets had become the terror of all merchant vessels. Admiral Watson bombarded the town from the sea. Clive attacked it from the land. The pirate fleet in the harbour was burnt, the fort captured, and the booty divided among the soldiers. Clive then proceeded to Madras. He had been there but a very short time when he and Watson were ordered to Calcutta, in consequence of events in Bengal which will be related in another chapter. 1756 A.D.

CHAPTER IV.

OVERTHROW OF THE FRENCH POWER IN INDIA.

1757 A.D. TO 1761 A.D.

194. The French renew the war and take Fort St. David. | 195. Final defeat of the French. 196. Death of Lally.

194. The French renew the war and take Fort St. David.—In 1756 the Seven Years' War broke out in Europe, and England and France were again on opposite sides. On the 25th April 1758 a French fleet under Count de Lally, who had been appointed Governor-General of the French possessions in India, arrived at Pondicherry. Scarcely had Lally landed his troops when he set out for Fort St. David, forcing the natives and their cattle into his service. Within a few weeks the fort fell into his hands, and it was levelled to the ground. Elated with his success, Lally formed the grand design of driving the English out of India. Bussy was ordered to leave the Deccan and come to his assistance. Lally intended to seize Madras and then march to Bengal. But the very first step he had taken was ruinous to his cause. No sooner was Bussy's back turned on the Northern Circars than the Raja of Vizianagram revolted, and sent to Calcutta for help. Colonel Forde was despatched to his aid. He defeated Conflans, Bussy's successor, and prepared to recover the English factories on the coast.

195. Final defeat of the French.—Count de Lally and Bussy marched to Madras, occupied Black Town and laid siege to Fort St. George. But the English fleet arriving in the roads, Lally beat a hasty retreat and the siege was raised. The English in turn took the
1759 A.D. field under Colonel Coote, routed the French at Vandivash, and took Bussy prisoner. Karikal fell into their hands and Pondicherry itself was

invested. The garrison held out bravely till January 1761, when Lally and his troops surrendered. The town and fortifications suffered the fate of Fort St. David. Jinji next fell, and with the loss of that fortress the military glory of the French in the Carnatic was brought to an end. Colonel Forde drove the French out of the Northern Circars, and Salabat Jang having lost his protector, was thrown into prison by Nizam Ali, who ascended the throne of Haidarabad.

196. Death of Lally.—The fate of Lally was most sad. He had been sent to India to drive the English out of the country; bold, able, and daring as he was, he had lost all. On his return to France, the French, furious at the loss of all their possessions in the East, cried out against the Government. The Government to save their own reputation resolved to make a victim of Lally. Frivolous charges were trumped up against him, and he was thrown into the Bastile—a State prison in Paris. He was tried and condemned to death. On hearing his sentence the unhappy man exclaimed "Is this the reward of forty-five years of service!" and tried to stab himself to the heart with a pair of compasses. His mouth was gagged, and he was taken in a common cart to the place of execution. Thus fell the third great leader of the French East India Company.

CHAPTER V.

ESTABLISHMENT OF ENGLISH AUTHORITY IN BENGAL.

1700 A.D. TO 1760 A.D.

197. Progress of Bengal Settlements.
198. Siraj-ud-daulah.
199. The Black Hole of Calcutta.
200. Clive recovers Calcutta.
201. Chandarnagar captured.
202. Conspiracy against Siraj-ud-daulah.
203. Battle of Plassey.
204. Death of Siraj-ud-daulah.
205. The Company rewarded.
206. The Shahzada invests Patna.
207. The Dutch defeated.

197. Progress of Bengal Settlements.—The English settlements in Bengal had hitherto held but a secondary position to those in the Carnatic. Farrukh Siyar had granted the Company several commercial advantages, and given them permission to purchase eight villages round Calcutta and exercise lordship over them. But Murshid Kuli Khan, the first Nawab of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, from whom Murshidabad takes its name, quickly saw that such increase of territory would give the English control over the port, and forbade the zemindar to sell any land to them under pain of his high displeasure. Under Murshid Kuli Khan's successors the position of the English greatly improved, and when Alivirdi Khan usurped the throne of Bengal he took the English under his protection.

1700 A.D.

1725 A.D.

1740 A.D.

198. Siraj-ud-daulah.—Alivirdi Khan died in April 1756, and was succeeded by his grandson Siraj-ud-daulah. He was not quite twenty years of age, and was cruel and profligate, insolent and self-willed. His mind, naturally weak, was obscured by intemperance. His companions

were the dregs of society, who pleased him by their flattery and buffoonery. Before he ascended the throne he was universally abhorred. Siraj-ud-daulah hated the English and at once proceeded to pick a quarrel with them. England and France were on the point of war. The French had a settlement at Chandarnagar; and Drake, the English Governor, mindful of the fate of Madras, began to repair the fortifications of Fort William. A rich Hindu whom Siraj-ud-daulah had wished to rob had fled to Fort William, and an order was sent by the Nawab to Drake to deliver him up and to demolish the new fortifications. Drake replied that he could not in honour deliver up a fugitive that had sought his protection, and that he had built no new fortifications, but had only repaired the ramparts against possible attack from the French. The young Nawab was wild with rage. He plundered the English factory at Kasimbazar, and took all the English officers, among whom was Warren Hastings, prisoners. He then marched to Calcutta at the head of fifty thousand men.

199. The Black Hole of Calcutta.—When the news of Siraj-ud-daulah's approach reached Calcutta, the English were panic-stricken. The women and children were quickly put on board the English vessels and the captains immediately weighed anchor and steered two miles down the river. Two boats were left. The Governor, frantic with fear, jumped into one and made after them. The military commander followed in the other. The soldiers and officers, thus basely deserted, elected Mr. Holwell, a civilian, as their leader, and resolved to defend the fort to the last. For forty-eight hours they held out. During that time they could easily have been rescued by the ships, but not a vessel was sent to their assistance. Holwell was forced to negotiate. The soldiers, worn out with heat and watching, broke into the arrack

stores and got drunk. The Nawab's soldiers forced their way into the fort. The garrison surrendered and Siraj-ud-daulah entered the fort in triumph. He had formed the most exaggerated idea of the treasure to be found there, and great was his disappointment when he obtained only half a lakh. He sent for Holwell and expressed his resentment at having found so little money in the treasury; but he promised Holwell protection. The joy of the prisoners on hearing that their lives were safe was excessive. But this joy was soon to be dispelled. Only one place could be found in which to confine them. It was a room, not eighteen feet square, with only two small windows with iron bars—a room henceforth to be known as the Black Hole of Calcutta. Into this small apartment, on a hot June evening, *one hundred and forty-six* human beings were forced at the point of the bayonet, and the door was shut. We may pass over the sufferings of those poor unfortunates during that awful night. Suffice it to say, that the ghastly forms of only *twenty-two men* and *one woman* crawled out of that den into the light of a new day. The remaining *one hundred and twenty-three* were corpses. The question as to whether Siraj-ud-daulah was to blame for this awful tragedy has been much discussed. The probability is that he was not directly so. The prisoners had been left in charge of the officers. Siraj-ud-daulah himself had gone to sleep and no one dared awake him. But the next morning, when the survivors were brought to him, he was utterly callous, and seemed only anxious to discover where the English had secreted their treasures. Holwell and four others were sent off to Murshidabad in chains. The remainder were allowed to go on board the English vessels. Siraj-ud-daulah returned exultant to his capital, and addressed a most glowing account of his victory to the Emperor at Delhi.

1756 A.D.

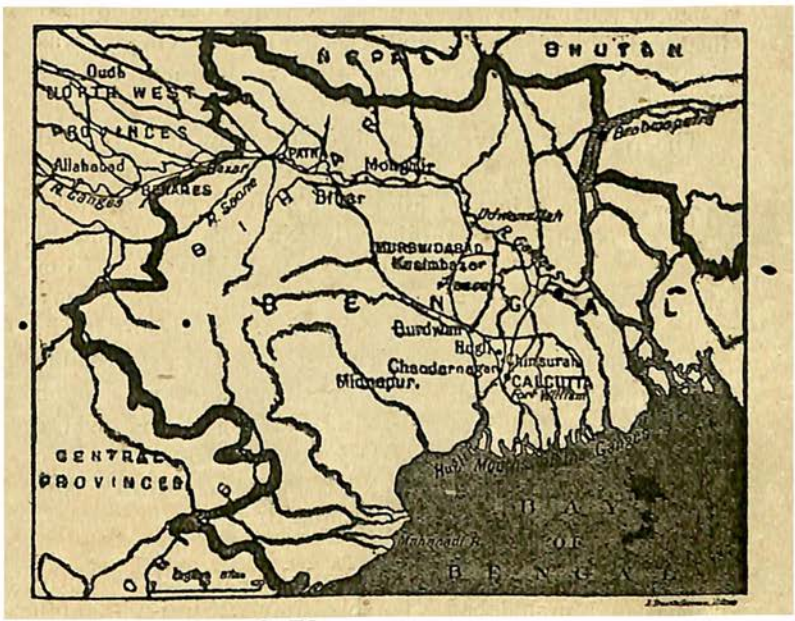
200. Clive recovers Calcutta.—News of the tragedy of the Black Hole reached Madras in August, and aroused the keenest desire for vengeance. Within forty-eight hours the Government resolved to send an expedition to Bengal; and in October Clive and Watson set sail with nine hundred English infantry and fifteen hundred sepoys, Clive being in command of the army, Watson of the navy. Clive at once landed his forces, captured Budge-budge, routed the garrison that Siraj-ud-daulah had left in Fort William, recovered Calcutta, and stormed and plundered Hugli.

201. Chandarnagar captured.—Meanwhile Siraj-ud-daulah had released his prisoners. He had begun to feel he had made a mistake in driving the English merchants from the country. Trade had been interrupted and his revenue had consequently diminished. He was anxious to make peace with the English, yet he dreaded their power. Watson was opposed to entering on negotiations, declaring that the Nawab ought to be "well thrashed." But Clive, in view of the French war that was pending, thought it wise to make peace, and an agreement was come to by which the English trade was to be restored; compensation was to be given to the sufferers for the losses they had sustained at the capture of Calcutta by the Nawab; and permission was granted to the English to fortify Fort William. But the Nawab had no intention of fulfilling this engagement if he could avoid it. He sent entreaties to Bussy in the Northern Circars to come to his aid against the English. Clive and Watson heard of this. They at once attacked Chandarnagar, the French settlement in Bengal, captured it and took five hundred European troops prisoners.

202. Conspiracy against Siraj-ud-daulah. — The vices and follies of Siraj-ud-daulah had, meanwhile,

alienated all classes of his subjects from him. A powerful conspiracy was formed to depose him. The leaders were Raja Raidurlabh, the finance minister; Jagat Seth, the richest banker in India; and Mir Jafar, the commander-in-chief. Communication was opened between the conspirators and Clive, and the latter readily fell in with the scheme. Clive believed the Nawab to be a villain who could not be trusted, and declared that either he or the English must fall. An agreement was come to by which Clive promised to assist the conspirators and in return Mir Jafar, who was to be proclaimed Nawab, was to give the English army, navy, and civilians compensation for their services. The plot was laid. But time was needed to make the necessary preparations for carrying it out successfully. Clive therefore wrote to Siraj-ud-daulah what he called "soothing" letters expressing the utmost friendship; while at the same time the bearer would be carrying other letters for Watts, the English Agent, assuring him that an army would be sent to Mir Jafar's assistance. Communication between the English and the Nawab was carried on through Umachand, a crafty Bengali merchant who had suffered considerable loss on the capture of Calcutta by the Nawab. He knew all the threads of the plot, and had the lives of the conspirators entirely in his power. Umachand suddenly threatened to divulge the whole conspiracy unless he were promised thirty lakhs, and insisted that this should be inserted in the treaty made between the English and the conspirators. The committee did not know what to do. But Clive was quite equal to the occasion. Umachand did not deserve to get the money; but were he to go to the Nawab and reveal what he knew, all would be lost. Clive, therefore, proposed that the money should be promised him; but, at the same time, resolved that he should never receive it. Two treaties were drawn up, one on white paper, the other on

red. In the former no mention was made of Umachand, while the latter, which was fictitious and the one to be shown him, contained the stipulation demanded by him. A new difficulty arose. Watson would be no party to such a deceitful transaction and Umachand would detect the absence of Watson's name. Clive was not to be baffled. To his dishonour he forged Watson's signature.



203. Battle of Plassey.—All was now ready for action. Watts fled from Murshidabad. Clive declared war and marched to Kasimbazar. Siraj-ud-daulah and Mir Jafar with an immense army advanced to Plassey. The two armies approached within a few miles of each other. It had been arranged that Mir Jafar should bring over his division of the army to Clive's side. Clive waited and sent messages to Mir Jafar, but Mir Jafar never came. Clive was placed in a most difficult situation. His army

consisted of three thousand men, only seven hundred and fifty of whom were British, with nine pieces of artillery. The army of the Nawab consisted of fifty thousand infantry, eighteen thousand cavalry, with fifty pieces of artillery. Clive called a *council of war*, and was one in a majority that voted not to engage in battle. Subsequently he retired into a grove, and, after an hour's reflection, came to the conclusion that Coote, who had declared himself in favour of engaging the enemy, was right. Next day Clive crossed the river and marched for Plassey.

The Nawab's army was well covered by a grove, and remained on the defensive. Their cannon did little injury, while Clive's artillery was very effective. Several of the Nawab's chief officers were killed. Mir Jafar separated his troops from the Nawab. Clive immediately charged. The enemy broke and fled in the utmost confusion. Siraj-ud-daulah, with two thousand horse, retreated with all possible speed to Murshidabad. The tents, baggage and cannon of the enemy fell into the hands of the victors, whose loss in this memorable battle amounted to twenty-two killed and fifty wounded. Next day Clive saluted Mir Jafar as Nawab of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa.

1757 A.D.

204. Death of Siraj-ud-daulah.—Mir Jafar proceeded to Murshidabad. On his arrival, Siraj-ud-daulah let himself down from a window of his palace at night, and with only two attendants sailed up the river for Patna. He was captured and brought back to Murshidabad; and there, in a room, in what had once been his own palace, he was murdered by Miran, the son of Mir Jafar.

205. The Company rewarded.—Meanwhile Clive arrived and proceeded to arrange for the settlement of the terms of the agreement. Umachand was now to learn

how he had been deceived. He was informed that the paper he had seen was but a trick, and that he was to get nothing. The shock was too much for him. He fell back insensible and died a few months afterwards a drivelling idiot. The treasury of the Company was soon well filled. A hundred boats laden with eighty lakhs in silver sailed down the river to Fort William, with flags flying and trumpets blowing. All the servants of the Company received rich rewards. Clive himself acknowledged he had received sixteen lakhs. On the news of these successes reaching England, Clive was appointed Governor of the Company's possessions in Bengal.

206. The Shahzada invests Patna.—Mir Jafar, however, was not to remain in undisturbed possession of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa. In 1758 the eldest son of the Great Mughal, known as The Shahzada, claimed those provinces, and supported by Shuja-ud-daulah, Nawab of Oudh, the Mahrattas, the Jats, and some French under Law, amounting in all to forty thousand men, invested Patna. Mir Jafar in terror wished to buy them off; but Ram Narayan, the Governor, held out, and when Clive advanced with his small army the besiegers fled. Great was the joy of Mir Jafar. In gratitude he bestowed on Clive as a jaghir the quit-rent due by the Company for the territory round Calcutta, estimated at an annual value of about three lakhs. The Company thus became the tenants of their servant.

207. The Dutch defeated.—The gratitude of Mir Jafar did not last long. He felt how insecure his position was. The English had raised him to power. They might take that power from him. The French were now powerless in India; but the Dutch had settlement at Chinsurah. They might help him. He intrigued with the Dutch. They sent to their settlement in the East Indies for troops.

Seven large ships soon arrived in the Hugli from Java with one thousand five hundred troops on board. Clive, regardless of the fact that England and Holland were at peace, attacked them by land and sea, defeated them and forced the chief of the settlement of Chinsurah to engage to build no fortifications, and to keep no more armed men than were necessary to serve as police. Three months after this Clive sailed for England (1760).

1759 A.D.

CHAPTER VI.

BENGAL IN CLIVE'S ABSENCE.

1760 A.D. TO 1765 A.D.

208. Shah Alam's attempt on Bihar renewed.
209. Mir Jafar deposed.
210. Mir Kasim.
211. Mir Kasim makes Monghir his capital.
212. Disputes about duties.
213. Massacre of Patna.
214. Mir Kasim a fugitive.
215. First Sepoy Mutiny.
216. Battle of Baxar.

208. Shah Alam's attempt on Bihar renewed.—The next five years, during which Clive remained at home, form a dark page in the history of the English in India, and have left on the East India Company "a stain not wholly effaced by many years of just and humane government." Scarcely had Clive turned his back on India when the Shahzada, who having heard of the death of his father, had declared himself Emperor as Shah Alam II., and had appointed the Nawab of Oudh his Vazir, advanced to Patna. Ram Narayan, the brave Hindu, who had defended the city when previously attacked, again proved true to the English and held the town till Colonel

Calliaud came to his relief. The Emperor then made a rapid march for Murshidabad. Calliaud followed. The former wheeled, hastened back to Patna and again besieged the town. Captain Knox, with one thousand sepoys, hurried from Burdwan to its relief. Patna was three hundred miles distant from Burdwan, but by forced marches under a scorching April sun, Knox in thirteen days came up with the besieging army and defeated it. He next crossed the river and attacked the Nawab of Parnia, who had come to assist Shah Alam with thirty thousand men. The natives, struck with the daring of the little army, crowded the walls of Patna to witness the issue of the battle. For six hours the struggle continued, and it ended in the total defeat of the enemy.

209. **Mir Jafar deposed.**—It was now quite clear to the English that Mir Jafar was unfit to rule. He had lost the very little reason he had ever possessed. The money in the treasury was exhausted, the troops were clamouring for their pay, the Company's treasury also was empty, and Mir Jafar was unable to pay the balance of his debts to them. Vansittart, who had succeeded Clive as Governor, proceeded to Murshidabad, deposed Mir Jafar, and conducted him for safety to Calcutta. Mir Kasim, the old man's son-in-law, was appointed Nawab. In return, Mir Kasim made over to the Company the revenues of Burdwan, Midnapur and Chittagong, which then furnished one-third of the revenue of Bengal. He promised to pay the Company the debts due to them by Mir Jafar, and to make over five lakhs of rupees towards the expense of the war in the Carnatic. In addition to this, the servants of the Company personally received large sums of money, ranging from thirteen to fifty lakhs of rupees. Such was the price Mir Kasim paid for his crown, and such were the means used by the servants of the Company to become rich.

210. Mir Kasim.—Mir Kasim was a man of a very different stamp from his father-in-law. He proceeded at once to dismiss the worthless favourites that had surrounded Mir Jafar, and to call in all arrears of rent that had accumulated under his weak government. He revised the land assessment, abolished a host of useless and expensive offices, and called on the provincial officers to give up the wealth they had amassed by extortion and plunder. One of the first of those officers to be attacked was Ram Narayan, the defender of Patna, whom the English had promised to protect from his enemies. Charges were trumped up against him. Ram Narayan appealed to Calcutta. Vansittart shrank from condemning a man whose guilt had not been proved; but the majority of the Council sided with Mir Kasim. Ram Narayan was handed over to him. The unfortunate Hindu was at once despoiled of the little wealth he had secured. His friends and officers were tortured to make known where his supposed treasure was concealed; and, when but little treasure was forthcoming, the brave Ram Narayan was put to death, a victim to disappointed greed. No act of the administration of Vansittart did more to weaken the English influence in India than this. The nobles of Bengal had been wont to place confidence in the promises of the English. They now saw them hand over a friend who had been faithful to them, and whom they had promised to protect, to his most bitter enemy. The friends of the English could no longer trust them. Their enemies were emboldened, and, amongst the latter, Mir Kasim himself was soon to be numbered.

211. Mir Kasim makes Monghir his capital.—Mir Kasim was soon in a position to meet the wants of his army and to fulfil his obligations to the Company. He was a man of ability and a man of will. He resolved to be Nawab in reality as well as in name. Murshidabad

did not suit his purposes as a capital because it was too near Calcutta, whence all his movements could be easily watched. He removed the seat of his Government to Monghir, a distance of three hundred and twenty miles from Calcutta, fortified the place, and built an arsenal where cannon and muskets of a superior kind were manufactured. Within three years he had at his command fifteen thousand cavalry and twenty-five thousand infantry, trained for the most part by men who had deserted from the Company's service. He was no less active in improving the administration of the country and in consolidating his Government. But English greed and English extortion and oppression were soon to lead him to take up arms on behalf of his rights, and in the unequal contest he was to lose his throne.

212. Disputes about duties.—Under an old *imperial firman* the merchandise of the Company was allowed to pass up and down the country duty free by virtue of a *dastak* or *permit*, signed by the President. After the battle of Plassey the servants of the Company claimed the same privileges for their private trade. The grossest abuses followed. Every boat that had the English flag flying could pass the tolls unchallenged, while the transit duties on native goods were heavy. Every servant, every agent of the Company had his *dastak*, and it was said that the youngest boy in the service could make two thousand rupees per mensem by selling passes to the natives. Every native trader began to hoist the English flag, and if the officers of the Nawab made the slightest attempt to stop a boat with this flag flying, they were carried off to the next factory or sent to Calcutta in chains. Nor was this all. The English carried on their trade in the most tyrannical way, forcing the natives to buy dear and sell cheap. Trade was thus disorganised. The Nawab was robbed of his revenues.

What wonder that he should apply to Calcutta for redress! Vansittart, accompanied by Warren Hastings, proceeded to Monghir. They felt that outrages so gross could "bode no good to the Nawab's revenues, the quiet of the country, or the honour of England." They were well received, and an agreement was come to by which the Company's servants were to pay a duty of 9 per cent. as against 25 per cent. paid by others. On Vansittart's return to Calcutta he encountered the most violent opposition from his colleagues. They declared that he had betrayed them by surrendering their right to trade free of all duty, and resolved that they would pay no duty except on *salt* and that only at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Mir Kasim thereupon removed all transit duties whatever, and thereby gave his own subjects equal privileges with the English. When the news of this reached Calcutta, the rage of the Councillors knew no bounds. In vain did Vansittart and Hastings uphold the right of the Nawab to give his own subjects equal privileges with foreigners. The Council by a majority resolved to call on the Nawab to annul his decree, and to inform him that he had greatly wronged the power that had placed him on the throne. The Nawab refused to re-impose the duties. Both sides prepared for war. Ellis, the Company's agent at Patna, suddenly attacked and captured that city. When Mir Kasim heard of this he ordered the capture of every Englishman in Bengal.

1763 A.D. Mr. Amyatt, a member of the Council, was taken and killed by the Nawab's officers. Patna was recovered, and Ellis and many other Englishmen fell into the hands of Mir Kasim.

213. Massacre of Patna.—The Council now brought out Mir Jafar from his place of retirement. The old man, now seventy-two years of age and a leper, readily promised to give the Company all they wished, and they reinstated

him on the throne. An army of six hundred and fifty Europeans and one thousand sepoys left Calcutta. On the 2nd July Murshidabad was captured. A month later they came up with the Nawab's force at Geriah. Never did troops fight better than those of the Nawab; but in the end the Europeans and sepoys had the best of it, and the Nawab's army retreated, leaving all their guns and stores behind them. In November the Nawab was again defeated at Udwanullah. Monghir next fell. Mir Kasim, wild with rage, informed the English that if they advanced further, he would put Ellis and the other prisoners to death. When the English army advanced Mir Kasim kept his word. His officers refused to carry out his orders for the slaughter of the prisoners. A fitting instrument was found in a certain Walter Reinhardt, better known by his nickname Sumru. This ruffian ordered the soldiers to mount the roof of the prison and fire on the prisoners. These seized bottles, chairs, anything they could lay their hands upon, and fought with the energy of despair. But not a single person escaped. One hundred and fifty defenceless soldiers, civilians, and women lay dead in that prison-house on that woeful day.

214. Mir Kasim a fugitive.—Mir Kasim hoped that this massacre would frighten the English into making peace with him. But it had exactly the opposite effect, as nothing was thought of but vengeance. Within a month Patna was stormed and taken, and Mir Kasim and Sumru were fugitives at the court of the Nawab of Oudh.

215. First Sepoy Mutiny.—Shuja-ud-daulah wished to secure Bihar for himself. The time was opportune for his accomplishing his object. The forces that had advanced to Patna had expected to be liberally rewarded for their services. They received their ordinary pay.

Provisions were scanty. The English troops threatened to desert to the enemy. An entire battalion of sepoys actually went off. But Munro, who had arrived with reinforcements, went off after them, took them prisoners and blew eight of them from the guns.

216. Battle of Baxar.—Shuja-ud-daulah accompanied by Shah Alam II. and an immense army advanced into Bihar. Munro marched against them. The two armies met at Baxar, and Shuja-ud-daulah, having been
1764 A.D. utterly defeated, fled into the Rohilla country. Shah Alam II. joined the English. The battle of Baxar was one of the most important events in the history of the English conquests in India. It broke up the power of the Nawab of Oudh, who, after the Nizam, was the most powerful of the Mughal viceroys. It threw into the power of the English the province of Oudh, and established them as the greatest
1765 A.D. power in India. Shuja-ud-daulah did once again take the field. But at Korah he was again defeated, and seeing that his cause was hopeless, he entered the English camp and threw himself on their mercy.

CHAPTER VII.

CLIVE'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION.

217. Clive's return to India.
218. The English acquire the Diwani of Bengal.
219. Clive's administrative reforms.
220. Clive's retirement and death.

217. Clive's return to India.—On the day the battle of Korah was fought Clive arrived in Calcutta. He had been received with the greatest enthusiasm in England and had been raised to the peerage as Lord Clive. The great Lord Chatham had spoken of him as a "heaven-

born general" and a "man who, bred to the labour of the desk, had displayed a military genius which might excite the admiration of Frederick the Great of Prussia." Meanwhile reports of the disgraceful proceedings of the Company's servants in Bengal had reached England. The same ships that brought the news of brilliant victories won and conquests made, also brought tidings of the army being in mutiny and the Company's exchequer being empty, while from each ship there landed young servants of the Company, bringing with them fortunes that enabled them to vie with the richest noblemen in the land in the magnificence of their houses and the luxury of their tables. The Directors began to fear for their dividends. This system of private trading and selling of thrones must be put an end to.

All eyes were turned to Clive as the only man fitted to bring order out of this chaos. But Clive had been previously thwarted by the Council at Calcutta; and Sullivan, the chairman of the Company at home, was his enemy. He would not return unless he was entrusted with independent powers. The Directors had but one course left open to them. Clive was appointed Governor and Commander-in-Chief in Bengal, and in place of Sullivan a chairman, friendly to Clive, was elected.

218. The English acquire the Diwani of Bengal.—Such was the position Clive held when he landed at Calcutta, and he resolved to use his powers to crush out the evils that had crept into the administration of the Company. Mir Jafar had died while Clive was on his way out, and the Company had placed his infant son on the throne, in return for which they had received fourteen lakhs. Clive proceeded to Allahabad where Shah Alam and Shuja-ud-daulah were prisoners in the English camp. To Shuja-ud-daulah he restored his provinces. Allahabad and Korah were given to Shah Alam, who conferred

on the English the Diwani (*i.e.*, the right of collecting the revenue) of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, in return for a yearly payment of twenty-six lakhs, thus giving them a legal right to administer provinces that had been actually under their control for some time. The infant Nawab of Bengal was pensioned, and his descendants still live at Murshidabad as pensioners and subjects of the British crown.

219. **Clive's administrative reforms.**—Clive had so far been eminently successful in his foreign policy; but he had a much more formidable difficulty to encounter in rectifying the abuses in the civil and military services. The servants of the Company had hitherto received exceedingly small salaries. They had, however, been allowed to trade on their own account and to receive presents from the natives. In their haste to become rich they had not always been very scrupulous as to the means used to acquire their wealth; and as their private interests often clashed with those of the Company, the interests of the latter often suffered. The Board of Directors, while Clive was in England, had forbidden their servants to take presents. Clive now put their resolution in force. He forbade the servants of the Company to trade or to receive presents, and made each man sign an engagement to that effect. Some provision for compensation from the public revenues was at the same time made, but it was not till the time of Lord Cornwallis that a scale of salaries for civilians sufficiently high to enable them to live in comfort and place them above temptation to corruption was put in force. After Clive left India complaints were constantly made of private trading and the receiving of presents.

Clive next turned his attention to the army. The troops when on service had been accustomed to receive what was called "double batta." This was nominally

a subsistence allowance, but the amount was excessive. Clive proceeded to stop it. The officers mutinied. Two hundred resolved to resign in one day. England depended on her army for her existence in the country. The Mahrattas were advancing. The officers thought Clive must yield, but they misjudged their man. As each officer resigned he was arrested. Clive sent to Madras for others to fill their places. Within a fortnight the mutiny was quelled and the ringleaders were punished.

220. Clive's retirement and death.—Clive had only time to thus begin the establishment of British administration in India on a sound basis before ill-health compelled him to retire. He set sail early in the year 1767 a poorer man than when he returned to India eighteen months before. His career was one of mingled good and evil, and the enemies he had made among the civil and military servants of the Company by his reforms, exaggerated the evil in order to secure a vote of censure on him in Parliament. They were partly successful, but added to the vote were the words, "Robert Lord Clive did at the same time render great and meritorious services to his country." This occurred during the discussion of the Regulating Act in 1773, and the censure so preyed on Clive's mind, already weakened by disease, that the next year he committed suicide.

1767 A.D.

CHAPTER VIII.

HAIDAR ALI AND THE FIRST MYSORE WAR.

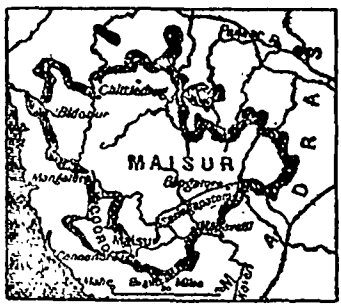
1766 A.D. TO 1769 A.D.

221. Haidar Ali of Mysore.
222. The First Mysore war begins.
223. The Nizam rejoins the English.
224. The English successes in Mysore.
225. Haidar Ali recovers his ground.
226. Treaty of Madras.

221. Haidar Ali of Mysore.—This was one of the many adventurers who contrived to carve kingdoms for themselves out of the Mughal Empire. He was a Muhammadan soldier of fortune. His grand-
1767 father had left the Punjab and come to the
A.D. Deccan as a *Fakir*. When Haidar was born in 1702 his father was a petty officer of police. A few years later the father died, and the mother and her son were taken care of by her brother who was a *Naick*. Haidar is said to have served in the French army. Subsequently he gathered together a band of lawless men, just as Sivaji had formerly done, and lived by plunder. He was present with the Regent of Mysore at the siege of Trichinopoly, and received an allowance for every man he brought into the field. Gradually by tricks and treachery he raised himself to the throne of Mysore.

222. The First Mysore war begins.—In 1767 Haidar Ali was intriguing with the French against the English, and consequently the latter entered into an agreement with the Mahrattas and Nizam Ali to attack Mysore. If the plan of this "Triple Alliance" had been carried out, Mysore would have been attacked at once from all sides; but Haidar knew the enemies he had to deal with. He quickly bought off the Mahrattas; and Nizam Ali was

soon induced to turn his arms against the very force that had been sent from Madras to his aid. Fortunately the English army of seven thousand men with sixteen guns was commanded by Colonel Smith, a very distinguished officer. The united forces of the enemy were seventy thousand men. Smith retreated. At Changama, Haidar attacked him but was repulsed. Smith continued his retreat until he arrived at Trinomali. Haidar followed and besieged the town. At the same time Tippu, son of Haidar Ali, with five thousand horse, carried fire and sword to the gates of Fort St. George. The English army at Trinomali was soon reduced to extremities. Famine might have done its work and given the confederates a victory, but they would not wait its slow operation. Confident in their superior numbers they made an attack. But Smith, by an able movement of his troops and by the skilful way in which he used his artillery, gained a victory which forced Haidar to retreat to the hill country. 1767 A.D.



223. The Nizam rejoins the English.—Nizam Ali had not expected to be defeated. He had hoped to march to Madras and recover the throne of the Carnatic. He now began to fear he might lose what he already possessed. He therefore deserted his new ally and made peace with the English, confirming to them the grant of the Northern Circars made two years previously.

224. The English successes in Mysore.—Smith was unable to follow up his victory. Haidar laid siege to Ambur. Captain Calvert gallantly defended the place for

twenty-six days, when Colonel Smith coming to his aid defeated the besieging army outside the fort. Elated by this success, the Madras Government resolved to invade Mysore. Colonel Smith was sent against Bangalore, while Colonel Wood invaded the fertile country lying along the foot of the ghats. The latter soon accomplished his object. All the country between Dindigul, Palghat and Vaniambady fell into his hands. The Bombay Government likewise sent troops to the west coast, and Mangalore, Onore and other places were taken.

1767 A.D.

225. **Haidar Ali recovers his ground.**—Haidar had thus in a very short time lost one half of his possessions. He at first put forth all his strength to recover his territory in the west and was wholly successful. He next proceeded to Bangalore. But he did not consider himself strong enough to run the risk of a general action. He would willingly have made peace, but the demands made by the Madras Council were so enormous that he resolved to continue the struggle. Meanwhile Colonel Smith had been superseded by Colonel Wood, and Haidar, seizing an opportunity that was given him, fell upon Colonel Wood's army by surprise and put it to rout. He then marched into the low country, destroyed or took prisoners the small companies that had been stationed throughout the district, and recovered the whole of his lost possessions. Haidar then formed the daring resolve of attacking Madras. With six thousand cavalry and two hundred choice infantry he made the wonderful march of one hundred and thirty miles in less than four days, and suddenly appeared within five miles of that city.

226. **Treaty of Madras.**—The Madras Council was panic-stricken. Colonel Smith was not far away. They could easily have held the fort till he came to their

assistance, but fear got the mastery over them. They concluded peace with Haidar, by which both parties were allowed to retain the possessions they had held before the war, and they mutually engaged to assist each other in all defensive wars.

CHAPTER IX.

BENGAL: WARREN HASTINGS, GOVERNOR OF BENGAL.

1767 A.D. TO 1775 A.D.

227. Double Government.
228. Warren Hastings.
229. His reforms.
230. Results of Hastings' policy.

227. Double Government.—The Company's affairs in Bengal had again fallen into a bad way. The rich provinces of Bengal and Bihar had been granted to Clive in 1765. Those provinces were placed under a double government. *The administration of justice and the collection of the revenue were left in the hands of native governors and agents*, who, in the name of the Nawab, oppressed and fleeced the people. *The English garrisoned the country*, and so long as the native agents brought a good round sum to the English treasury, the English in no way interfered with the civil administration. The native officials preyed upon the people. The agents of the Company fell into their old ways and quickly amassed fortunes; while the sums paid into the Company's treasury became smaller and smaller. Matters were brought to a climax in 1771. A famine and pestilence visited Bengal, and the people died off in hundreds of thousands. Reports reached England that the officials were holding back the rice in order to sell it at famine prices. The Directors were indignant. They determined on introducing radical reforms into the administration, and to this end appointed Warren

1771 A.D.

Hastings, a man of great ability and Indian experience, and up to this time certainly a man of probity, Governor of Bengal.

228. **Warren Hastings.** — From 1771 to 1783 the history of India centres round this great man. Hastings was born in 1732. He landed in India for the first time in 1750. He was taken prisoner by Siraj-ud-daulah at Kasimbazar. He fled to Clive when he heard of Clive's arrival in the Hugli, and, as a volunteer, served under that commander in his victorious march on Calcutta. Subsequently he rose to be a Member of the Council at Calcutta, and was one of the minority that upheld Mir Kasim's right to give his own subjects the same commercial privileges that the English enjoyed. He returned to England in 1764, and so high an opinion did the Directors form of his ability and uprightness that in 1769 he was sent out as Second Member of Council at Madras.

229. **His reforms.**—Hastings entered on his office, as Governor of Bengal, in April 1772, and at once proceeded to take the administration of the country *out of the hands of the natives* The land revenues first secured his attention. To put them on a better footing, he let the lands to the highest bidders amongst the zemindars. English Collectors were appointed over districts, and in the civil and criminal courts of their districts they were supreme. Two courts of appeal were established at Calcutta, which was now made the capital. Over the one, the Sadr Dewani Adalat or chief civil court, the Governor himself presided; the other, the Sadr Nizamat-i-Adalat or criminal court, was presided over by a native judge appointed by the Council. The Nawab's allowance was reduced to sixteen lakhs a year. The pension list was also reduced. Hastings drew

1772 A.D.

Map of the
MAHRATTA COUNTRY
English Miles
0 50 100 200
BIKANIR
JEISALMIR
ULWAR
Alighar
Muttra
Agra
Bhurtpur
Lasweri
Pig
Fatehabad
RAJPUTANA
MARWAR
JAIPUR
Tonk
Gwalior
SINDIA
R. Chambal
R. Jumna
R. Ganges
BUNDELKHAND
Rampura
HOLKAR
MALWA
Sirenj
SINDIA
BHOPAL
Ujjein
Indore
GUJARAT
Cambay
Baroda
R. Nerbudda
GUNDWANA
Broach
Surat
R. Tapty
Burhanpur
Argaum
Gawilghar
Ellichpur
Sirpi
Anjengaon
Nagpur
Kandesh
R. Purna
BARAR
Damaun
Chandor
Ajanta Hills
Aseer
R. Wurda
Deogiri
Jafrapur
Doulatabad
Aurungabad
R. Pain Ganga
Trimbuk
Basein
Salsette I.
Kullian
Ahmednagar
R. Godavery
BOMBAY
Tellygaum
Eurdia
Kolaba I.
Puna
Rajapoor
Jinjira
Parenda
Udgir
NIZAM'S
DOMINIONS
Severndroog
Satara
Sholapur
Bidar
Sangameshwar
Golegonda
Hyderabad
Ratnagiri
Bijapur
R. Beema
Kolapur
Goa
Dharwar
Hubli
R. Kistna
R. Tungrabudra
Sivadasaghar
Original Mahratta Country
G. Philip & Son, London & Liverpool.

up a simple code of Hindu and Muhammadan law for the regulation of the courts, and put an end to the ancient custom of the judges receiving one-fourth of the amount in dispute in civil cases. Many local taxes that pressed heavily on the people were abolished. The inland duties were revised and reduced to a uniform level. Those and other acts reflect the highest honour on Hastings, and point him out as pre-eminently the ablest and most successful statesman that ever governed Bengal.

230. Results of Hastings' policy.—During those two years Hastings had proved himself to be possessed of the greatest administrative ability. He had reduced taxation, and yet, in addition to one crore of rupees received in cash, he had added forty-five lakhs to the annual income of the Company. The law courts had been purified. Trade had revived, and millions of people had obtained security in their possessions and been made contented, peaceful and happy. Meanwhile, the Regulating Act had been passed in England, which placed India under an entirely new form of government. 1773 A.D.

CHAPTER X.

THE ROHILLA AND FIRST MAHRATTA WARS.

231. Revival of the Mahratta power.
232. Causes of the Rohilla war.
233. Invasion and conquest of Rohilkhand.
234. Causes of the First Mahratta war.
235. Treaty of Surata.
236. Treaty of Purandhar.
237. Convention of Wargam.
238. The war renewed.
239. Retreat of the English.
240. Hastings' successful strategy.
241. Treaty of Salbai.

231. Revival of the Mahratta power.—We have seen that the battle of Panipat and the death of Balaji

Baji Rao in 1761 prevented the establishment of a Mahratta supremacy in India. The next Peshwa, the fourth, was Madu Rao, who succeeded under the regency of his uncle Raganath Rao. In a few years Madu Rao began to rule for himself and threw his uncle into prison, where he kept him for seven years. Under him the Mahratta power recovered much of its past prestige throughout India. He led an important expedition into the Carnatic and distinguished himself in a war against Haidar Ali. Haidar Ali was defeated in the field, and forced to restore to the Mahrattas a large extent of territory and to pay thirty-two lakhs of rupees. In 1769 a Mahratta army again crossed the Chambal, and forced the Rajputs and the Jats to pay tribute. Rohilkhand was overrun by a large army under Sindia. Shah Alam II., the nominal Emperor of Delhi, left the English protection for that of the Mahrattas, and the latter seized all that remained of the power of the once mighty Mughal. Madu Rao died in 1772.

232. **Causes of the Rohilla war.**—The Rohillas had promised to pay the Nawab of Oudh forty lakhs of rupees for his protection. In 1773 Narayana Rao, the Peshwa, was murdered at Puna, and in consequence of this the Mahrattas returned home. The Nawab claimed the forty lakhs. The Rohillas denied they had made the promise. These circumstances gave Hastings a splendid opportunity of replenishing the Company's treasury and at the same time of strengthening the English against the Mahrattas. In the first place he announced that Shah Alam, by going to Delhi contrary to the wish of the Bengal Government, had broken the treaty with Clive under which twenty-six lakhs a year were to be given him for the Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and that the tribute would therefore be withheld. At the same time his grant of Korah and Allahabad to the Mahrattas

was declared contrary to the spirit of the treaty, since they had been granted in 1765 to Shah Alam by the British for his support. Hastings then met Shuja-ud-daulah at Benares and concluded a treaty with him by which Korah and Allahabad were restored to the Nawab in return for fifty lakhs of rupees paid to the Company; Hastings was to furnish a brigade to invade Rohilkhand, the expenses of maintaining which were to be met by the Nawab; at the end of the campaign the Company were to receive an additional forty lakhs of rupees; and the fortress of Chunar on the Ganges was to be ceded to the Company.

233. Invasion and conquest of Rohilkhand.—In pursuance of this "*Treaty of Benares*," Colonel Champion marched with his brigade into Rohilkhand and near Katra put to rout forty thousand Rohillas under Rahmat Khan. So long as the battle remained doubtful, Shuja-ud-daulah's troops kept at a safe distance; but when the Rohillas broke and fled, they rushed in and plundered the camp. The disciplined English troops kept their ranks, and looking with disgust on their worthless allies said to each other, "We have the honour of the day and these banditti have the profit." The Nawab's troops were let loose over the country to murder, plunder, and commit every species of atrocity. Rohilkhand was subdued, and nearly twenty thousand Rohillas were forced to leave the country. It was unfortunate for the good name of Hastings and the honour of England that he should have had as allies such monsters of cruelty. But it must be remembered that Hastings did all he could, by sending strong representations from Calcutta, to prevent such barbarities, and also that the Rohillas were themselves a band of plundering adventurers that had only recently taken possession of the country, which they shamefully misgoverned.

234. **Causes of the First Mahratta war.**—Madu Rao was succeeded by his younger brother Narayana Rao. But within a year he was murdered, and Raganath Rao, who had been released from his prison shortly before Madu Rao's death, ascended the throne. Raganath Rao made successful war on Nizam Ali of Haidarabad, but he failed to take advantage of his success by obtaining territory from him, and so disgusted the Mahratta chiefs. They therefore set up a posthumous child of Narayana Rao as nominal Peshwa, with a Council of Regency, with the celebrated Nana Farnavis at its head. Raganath Rao defeated the forces sent against him by the Council of Regency. Instead, however, of marching to Puna and taking possession of the throne, which he could easily have done, he foolishly withdrew to Malwa and Gujarat, and finally applied to the English at Bombay for help.

235. **Treaty of Surat.**—The English were desirous of acquiring territory, and when Raganath Rao offered to give them Salsette and Basin, to meet the expenses of the war, the Bombay Government concluded a treaty at Surat, and prepared to assist in restoring Raganath Rao to the throne.

1775 A.D.

236. **Treaty of Purandhar.**—The Bombay Government had made this treaty without consulting the Government at Calcutta, which, by the Regulating Act, with Warren Hastings as Governor-General and a Council, had recently been made the Supreme Government in India. The latter declined to ratify the treaty of Surat. They pronounced it impolitic, dangerous, unauthorized and unjust, and another treaty was made with the Council of Regency at Puna, and signed at Purandhar, by which only Salsette was ceded to the English, and the cause of Raganath Rao was abandoned. But peace with the Mahrattas

1774 A.D.

1776 A.D.

was hardly possible now. The Directors in England approved of the treaty of Surat and condemned that of Purandhar. Nana Farnavis received a Frenchman at his court, furnished with presents from the King of France. As England was on the eve of a war with that country, Warren Hastings resolved on war, ostensibly to place Raganath Rao on the throne, but in reality to defeat the designs of the French. This war is known as the First Mahratta war.

237. Convention of Wargam.—The Bombay Government were delighted at seeing their original policy now being carried out. They resolved not to wait for the force that Hastings had despatched from Bengal, but to invade the Mahratta country at once. The arrangements for conducting Raganath Rao to Puna and placing him on the throne were intrusted to a committee, consisting of Mr. Carnac and Mr. Mostyn, Members of the Bombay Council, and Colonel Egerton, the Commanding Officer. The army left Bombay in November 1778, and early in January advanced to within eighteen miles of Puna. Meanwhile, Sindia had arrived there, had united the different factions, and, with thousands of Mahratta horse, he came up with the British at Talegaon. The Bombay army consisted of only two thousand six hundred British troops. Mr. Mostyn had died before the army left Bombay, and Colonel Egerton, in consequence of ill-health, was obliged to hand over the command of the army to Colonel Cockburn. Mr. Carnac proposed a retreat, and, under cover of the night, the British army began to retire. The result was disastrous. No sooner had the retreat begun than clouds of Mahrattas came sweeping on and attacked the rear. Fortunately there was one brave and able officer in the English army, and he, Captain Hartley, so gallantly withstood the repeated charges of the Mahrattas, that they were unable

1778 A.D.

to break the English line. The retreating army reached Wargam. Hartley showed his superiors how they might safely effect their retreat to Bombay. But Colonel Cockburn declared it to be impracticable. The committee entered into negotiations with the Mahrattas and signed the "Convention of Wargam," by which all the possessions the English had received from the Mahrattas were to be restored. Broach was to be given to Sindia. The army on its way from Bengal was to be ordered to advance no further, and two hostages were given.

1779 A.D.

238. **The war renewed.**—The utmost indignation was felt both in India and in England at this convention. The persons who concluded the peace were dismissed the service, and the Governor and Court of Directors immediately annulled the treaty, as having been concluded without authority from them. Meanwhile, Colonel Goddard had marched his army from Bengal, and had arrived at Surat. He had distinct powers given him as envoy of the Bengal Government; and the entire authority over the army was intrusted to him. At first he tried to enter on negotiations, but the court of Puna, elated with their past success, assumed so lofty a tone that no other course was left open than war, and, on this occasion, the British were no longer auxiliaries to Raganath Rao but principals.

On the first of January Goddard crossed the Tapti, and before the end of the month carried Ahmadabad, the capital of Gujarat, by storm. Holkar and Sindia crossed the Narbada with twenty thousand horse. Goddard went against them. But they would not fight. They would draw themselves up in line as if to give battle, and, on the first fire, would gallop off and be soon out of sight. Goddard, thinking they had been defeated, would pursue, only to find them drawn up in battle order in some new situation. For some months the

1780 A.D.

army under Goddard was in this way harassed and drawn fruitlessly through the country. But towards the end of the year Basin was captured, and the whole combined force of the Mahrattas that came to the relief of that town was defeated by Hartley.

11th December.

239. Retreat of the English.—While the English armies were thus successful and were recovering somewhat of their lost reputation, a terrible enemy burst on the Madras Presidency and carried fire and sword almost to the very gates of Fort St. George. Haidar Ali of Mysore had formed an alliance with the Nizam and the Mahrattas against the English, and as now the greatest number of troops that the latter could collect would be necessary to protect their interests in the south, an attempt was made by Goddard to enter into negotiations with Nana Farnavis to bring the war to an end. The court at Puna delayed. Goddard, thinking to overawe them, marched with six thousand men into the Konkan and threatened Puna. The Mahrattas laid waste the country, harassed Goddard's rear, cut off his convoys and intercepted his baggage, so that it was with the utmost difficulty he made good his retreat to Bombay.

240. Hastings' successful strategy. — Meanwhile, the genius of Hastings, the Governor-General, came to the rescue. He resolved to carry the war into the very heart of India. Captain Popham with two thousand four hundred men was sent across the Jumna. The fort of Lahor was taken by storm. Gwalior, the strongest fortress in the empire, was next attacked. Under cover of night Popham mounted the scarped rocks and scaled the walls. Before morning this fortress, hitherto considered impregnable, was in his hands. In furtherance of the same policy, another army under Colonel Carnac was

sent into Malwa; and Sindia, taken by surprise, was defeated with great loss.

241. Treaty of Salbai.—Those successes greatly added to the reputation of the English, and as Hastings by a large bribe succeeded in withdrawing Mudaji Bhonsle of Barar from the other Mahratta leaders, Sindia thought it wise to make friends with the English, and through his mediation peace was concluded at Salbai, by which the territories were fixed as in the treaty of Purandhar. Raganath Rao was granted a pension of three lakhs per annum, and was allowed to choose a place of residence. Broach was bestowed on Sindia to mark the sense which the English entertained of his conduct at Wargam, and of the humane and kind treatment he had given to the hostages. All Europeans except the Portuguese were to be excluded from the Mahratta country, and Haidar was to be compelled to relinquish the territories he had recently taken from the English and from the Nawab of Arcot. This treaty is known as the Treaty of Salbai.

1782 A.D.

CHAPTER XI.

THE SECOND MYSORE WAR.

242. Haidar Ali defeated by the Mahrattas.
243. Haidar Ali recovers his lost territories.
244. Causes of the Second Mysore war.
245. The Battle of Pollilor.
246. Hastings saves the Empire.
247. Battle of Porto Novo.
248. Second Battle of Pollilor.
249. Battle of Arni.
250. Character of Haidar.
251. Tippu Sultan.
252. Capture of Negapatam.

242. Haidar Ali defeated by the Mahrattas.—Scarcely had Haidar Ali signed the peace of Madras when the Mahrattas invaded his territories in overwhelming

numbers. By the peace of Madras the English and Haidar had agreed mutually to assist each other against their foes. Haidar therefore applied to the English for help against the Mahrattas. But no assistance would the English give, and Haidar, defeated at every point, was forced to cede to the Mahrattas a great part of his northern possessions, and to pay fifteen lakhs as the price of peace. This desertion of him in time of difficulty, when even his very throne was endangered, rankled in Haidar's mind, and for several years following, assisted by French officers, he steadily gathered around him a large and well trained army, so that when a fitting opportunity should arise he might take his revenge and, if possible, drive the English out of the south of India.

243. **Haidar Ali recovers his lost territories.**—Madu Rao died in 1772, and Haidar at once took advantage of the disorders at Puna to recover his lost possessions. Coorg was subdued. Haidar offered a reward of five rupees for every head that was brought to him, and not until he had been presented with, and paid for seven hundred heads, did he give orders to his men to desist from the carnage. Calicut fell into his hands without a blow. Gooty, the strong fortress of Morari Rao, was captured, and all the territory Haidar had ceded to the Mahrattas was recovered. In 1778 his kingdom extended as far north as the Krishna.

244. **Causes of the Second Mysore war.**—This year the First Mahratta war broke out. England also went to war with France. The Madras Government captured Pondicherry. Mahé on the west coast was the only other French possession in India. The country round Mahé belonged to Haidar. When the English advanced and captured that town, Haidar was indignant. Schwartz, the celebrated Missionary, 1778 A.D.

was sent to make peace with Haidar, but though Haidar received him kindly, he refused to be reconciled. Haidar had other aims. The English had as yet been very unsuccessful in the first Mahratta war. Now was his time to revenge their former desertion of him. He entered into an alliance with the Mahrattas and Nizam Ali. With ninety thousand men, the finest army that had ever been seen in Southern India, he burst through the Pass of Changama and proceeded to lay waste the Carnatic. The
1780 A.D. Governor and the Council of Fort St. George were but ill-qualified to meet such an emergency. They would not believe that Haidar intended the invasion. Nor were any preparations made against such a possible contingency. Reports were brought that Haidar had actually passed Changama and was carrying fire and sword throughout the country; but the dull-headed Governor would not credit such a report, until Conjeeveram had been taken, most of the forts of Muhammad Ali had been treacherously surrendered, and dark columns of smoke mingled with flames were seen within a few miles of Madras. †

245. The Battle of Pollilor.—Sir Hector Munro, the hero of Baxar (1764), was Commander-in-Chief with five thousand men; and Colonel Baillie with two thousand eight hundred men was on his way to occupy Gantur. It was desirable that their two armies should be united. Haidar threw his army between them to prevent a union. At Pollilor Baillie's force was cut to pieces, and his stores and guns fell into the hands of the enemy. Baillie himself and two hundred Europeans were taken prisoners and sent to Seringapatam, where they were treated with the greatest cruelty. The principal blame of this disaster rests with Munro, who was only two miles distant when Baillie was defeated. Had he advanced to the assistance of the latter the battle must have been very different. On hearing of

Baillie's defeat and capture, Munro retreated to Madras. Haidar advanced to Vellore and captured it.

246. **Hastings saves the Empire.**—Never was the English power in India in greater danger of being overthrown than now. The Mahrattas under Nana Farnavis and Sindia had become strong, and were engaged in a not unequal contest with the English in Central India. Haidar was all but master of the Carnatic. Bhonsle of Barar was meditating an attack on Bengal, and had he carried out his design, Bengal must have fallen into his hands. But the genius of Hastings saved the Empire. When the news of Baillie's defeat reached Calcutta, Sir Eyre Coote was at once sent to Madras by sea with five hundred and sixty European troops, while Colonel Pearce with an army of sepoys was ordered to march to the scene of danger, a distance of about seven hundred miles. Pearce had to advance through Bhonsle's territories; and Bhonsle was as yet an enemy. But before the English army reached Barar, Hastings by a large bribe had succeeded in withdrawing Bhonsle from the Puna confederacy, and when Pearce entered his territories, instead of meeting with opposition, he found himself strengthened by two thousand Mahratta horse. The Raja of Barar, as Hastings said, had been converted from "an ostensible enemy to a declared friend," and Bengal had been saved "from a state of dangerous alarm, if not from actual invasion and all the horrors of a predatory war."

247. **Battle of Porto Novo.**—When Sir Eyre Coote landed at Madras, Vandivash, the scene of his former victory over Bussy, 1760, was besieged, and was being defended by a young lieutenant, named Flint, with all the courage and skill of a second Clive. Coote hastened to Flint's relief. At the

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mere news of his approach, the enemy retreated and the siege was raised. Other forts were similarly relieved. While Coote was resting his troops at Porto Novo, he heard that Haidar had advanced with an army of ten times his numbers to prevent his return to Cuddalore. Nothing could have suited Coote better. He had all along been anxious to meet Haidar in a regular battle, but Haidar had always evaded him. With the utmost skill Coote led his men to the attack, and after six hours' fighting carried all before him. When Haidar, who was standing on an eminence, saw his army flying, he could scarcely believe his eyes: nor could he be moved from the spot, till his attendants by force mounted him on a swift horse, which carried him quickly out of danger.

248. Second Battle of Pollilor.—Pearce had, meanwhile, advanced with his army from Bengal, and Coote joined him at Pulicat. Haidar had defeated Baillie the year before at Pollilor. Having a superstitious belief in the day that battle was won being for him a lucky day, he attacked Coote and Pearce at the same place and on the same day of the year. The English soldiers, marching over the unburied bones of their countrymen that had fallen the year before, gained a victory, though not nearly so decisive a one as that of Porto Novo. Those successes were followed up by a great victory at Sholinger, Sept. 1781, in which Haidar lost five thousand men, while the English loss was but one hundred men. The war between Haidar and the English continued with varying success. Haidar captured Cuddalore. Coote again relieved Vandivash. Near the Koleroon the English sustained a great disaster. Colonel Braithwaite, at the head of the troops that had taken Negapatam, allowed himself to be surrounded by Tippu, and after a struggle for twenty-six hours was forced to surrender. On the other hand, the garrison at Tellicherry,

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which had been besieged for eighteen months, issued from their defences and captured one thousand two hundred of Haidar's troops together with their stores, guns, and ammunition. Coorg and Malabar, thereupon, rose against Haidar.

249. Battle of Arni.—Meanwhile, Hastings had not been idle. He had succeeded in concluding the Treaty of Salbai with the Mahrattas, and by that treaty not only were the Mahrattas withdrawn from the side of Haidar, but they bound themselves to see that Haidar restored his conquests to the English and to the Nawab of the Carnatic. Haidar, therefore, felt very anxious as to his future, and even meditated withdrawing from the Carnatic, when a French fleet arrived with three thousand men. Strengthened by those, Haidar again laid siege to Vandivash. Again the news of Coote's arrival brought relief to the town. At Arni, Haidar and the French were defeated. 1782 A.D.

250. Character of Haidar.—Of the many Indian adventurers we read of, Haidar Ali is one of the most remarkable. Unable to write or read, with no influence derived from birth, he worked his way to the throne of a mighty kingdom, and governed it with great ability and political wisdom, though without any regard to honour or principle, or even humanity. He died on the 7th December 1782, weary, as he said, of waging war "with a nation whom he might have made his friends, but whom the defeat of many Baillies and Braithwaites would never destroy."

251. Tippu Sultan.—Tippu was on the west coast when the news of his father's death reached him. He at once hastened to Seringapatam, where he was proclaimed sovereign, and found himself at the head of an army of

one hundred thousand men, with three crores of rupees in the treasury, besides immense wealth in jewels. Peace was fortunately made between England and France, and all the French in Tippu's service were at once recalled. Tippu marched into the west coast and captured Bednor and Mangalore. Colonel Fullerton, on the other hand, took Dindigul, Palghat and Coimbatore. He was on his way to attack Seringapatam, when he was stopped by the Governor of Madras, who had foolishly sent envoys to Tippu suing for peace. Tippu's pride was gratified. The English had come to him as suppliants. What more could he desire? They must be humiliated to the utmost degree. Not until Mangalore was in his possession and only after much entreaty would he agree to a peace, by which each side retained its former possessions. This treaty is known as the Treaty of Mangalore.

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252. **Capture of Negapatam.**—At this period war broke out between England and Holland. Sir Hector Munro was immediately sent against Negapatam, the chief Dutch colony. He captured it, as also Trincomali in Ceylon and other Dutch possessions. Those were finally made over to the English by the peace of Versailles in 1783.

1781 A.D.

CHAPTER XII.

WARREN HASTINGS, GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF BRITISH INDIA.

1774 A.D. TO 1785 A.D.

253. The Regulating Act.
254. Dissensions in the Council.
255. Nundkumar.
256. Chait Singh.
257. The Begams of Oudh.
258. Pitt's India Bill.
259. Hastings resigns.

253. The Regulating Act.—The Regulating Act was passed by the English Parliament in 1773, and came into force in India in 1774. By this Act the Governor of Bengal was made Governor-General, and assisted by a Council of four members, was entrusted with supreme power over all the British possessions in India. A *Supreme Court of Justice* was established at Calcutta, presided over by a *Chief Justice* and *three other Judges*, with powers independent of the Governor-General in Council. Warren Hastings was appointed the *first Governor-General*. The first Members of Council were Mr. Barwell, a friend of Hastings, Mr. Francis, General Clavering and Colonel Monson. The last three were sent out from England. The first Chief Justice was Sir Elijah Impey.

254. Dissensions in the Council.—No sooner had the three Councillors from England taken their seats at the Council table, than they began to show an intense hatred towards Hastings. Regardless of his great experience and his knowledge of the wants of the country, they strenuously opposed all his measures. As each Councillor had a vote in Council, the three from England could always form a majority, and thus for two years the Governor-General was almost powerless. The first cause of dispute

had reference to the treaty of Benares. The triumvirate in the Council, led by Francis, called on Hastings to produce all letters, public and private, that had passed between him and his agent at Oudh. Hastings refused. The majority in Council recalled Hastings' agent, ordered the brigade sent into Rohilkand to be withdrawn, and threatened to withdraw the troops from Oudh, unless the Nawab at once paid up all moneys due by him. Shuja-ud-daulah died the following year, and was succeeded by his young son Asaf-ud-daulah. Francis, with his majority, immediately brought pressure to bear upon Asaf-ud-daulah, forced him to sign a treaty by which he surrendered to the Company the revenues of Benares—the zemindar being made a feudatory Raja, paying an annual tribute of two lakhs and a half to the Company—and raised by rupees fifty thousand per mensem the subsidy which his father had agreed to pay for the English troops stationed in Oudh. Nor was this all. The young Nawab bound himself to pay to the English the debts due by his father; while, at the same time, Francis forced him to pay to his father's widow almost the whole of two crores of rupees which his father had left in the treasury. Against such harsh proceedings Hastings protested, but in vain. The Nawab was left with an empty treasury, an army clamouring for pay, and a heavy debt to the Company.

255. **Nundkumar.**—The power of Hastings was apparently gone. The natives were not slow to discover this. The triumvirate were ready to listen to any tales against the Governor-General, and, like hundreds of crows pecking at a wounded eagle, came hundreds of informers to blast the fair name of Hastings. Chief amongst those was a Brahman, named Nundkumar, who had many years before this been described by Clive and Hastings as the worst man they knew in India. He accused Hastings of having taken bribes from the wife of the late Mir Jafar. Nothing

could have pleased Francis more than this. He brought the charge against Hastings in the Council. Hastings treated it with scorn. Francis insisted that Nundkumar should be heard. Hastings denied the right of his colleagues to sit as his judges, and left the Council followed by Barwell. Suddenly the news ran through Calcutta that Nundkumar had been arrested on a charge of forgery, and cast as a common felon into the common gaol. The four judges of the High Court tried the case. A jury of twelve Englishmen was empannelled: a unanimous verdict of guilty was given; and the four judges agreed to the sentence that Nundkumar should be hanged. In the early morning of the 5th of August the sentence was carried out on the maidan outside Calcutta, in the presence of an immense crowd of Hindus. The sentence was considered severe by the natives, forgery though a capital crime in England, not being regarded so by the Hindus. Hastings has been accused of having procured the execution of Nundkumar to screen himself; but Hastings himself declared that he had in no way countenanced the prosecution. There can be no doubt that Nundkumar was guilty, since the majority of the Council who were his friends and who might have saved him, took no steps to do so. On the other hand, when the convicted man sent a petition to the Council, Francis himself demanded that the paper should be burned by the common hangman. Notwithstanding these facts it is difficult not to believe that Hastings had a more or less direct hand in this timely prosecution. The fate of Nundkumar struck terror into all the natives, and during the rest of Hastings' rule in India no one was daring enough to raise his voice against him. By the death of Monson, Hastings was enabled to secure a majority in the Council, and thereby to acquire a power which he alone at that time had the ability to use for the good of the country.

256. Chait Singh.—War had already broken out between the Bombay Government and the Mahrattas; and in 1780 Haidar Ali again invaded the Carnatic. The expenses of these wars were enormous, and Warren Hastings was forced to use every means in his power to procure money. He first turned to Chait Singh, the Raja of Benares. In 1775, as we have seen, Asaf-ud-daulah had transferred the right of collecting the revenues of that zemindari to the English. Chait Singh was appointed Raja, as a vassal of the Company, and was bound to aid them with men and money when called on to do so. Hastings demanded five lakhs of rupees and two thousand horse. But Chait Singh pleaded poverty, and delayed sending the men or the money. Hastings proceeded to Benares to enforce his demand, and Chait Singh was put under arrest. He was exceedingly popular among his subjects. They rose in arms and attacked the sepoys that had been placed as a guard over their Raja. The sepoys had forgotten to bring their ammunition with them and were cut to pieces. During the tumult the Raja quietly slipped out of the palace, and escaped to Ramnagar on the opposite side of the river. Hastings was now in the utmost peril. He had but a handful of men with him, and the residency was surrounded by an armed infuriated mob of many thousands. But his presence of mind did not desert him. He secretly sent messages to the nearest garrisons, and even wrote out and despatched the terms of a treaty he was making with Sindia. During the night he withdrew to the fortress of Chunar. The brave Popham was the first to come to his assistance. Chait Singh's army, now forty thousand strong, was defeated. Chait Singh fled to Gwalior, where he lived for twenty-nine years. The troops seized the treasure and divided it amongst themselves. Hastings, thus balked in his object of securing money to fill the Company's treasury, consoled himself by appointing Chait Singh's nephew his successor, and by demanding from

him twice the amount of tribute that had been hitherto received.

257. The Begams of Oudh.—Hastings was more successful in accomplishing another object of his journey. Asaf-ud-daulah of Oudh had never paid his debts. He complained that by the treaty of 1775 he had been deprived of the money that properly belonged to the State, and that, instead of its having been given to the Begams, it should have been given to him to pay his soldiers and the debts due by his father to the Company. He had no money now. Indeed he was more involved in debt than ever. The only way in which he could see relief might be obtained was by taking from the Begams the money they should never have possessed. The Begams were but ill-disposed towards the English. They had assisted Chait Singh in the late insurrection. Hastings agreed to the proposal of Asaf-ud-daulah. The Begams were forced to yield up seventy-six lakhs, which were handed over to the Company. 1781 A.D.

258. Pitt's India Bill.—These measures were condemned by the Court of Directors. Indian affairs had likewise been discussed in Parliament, and a Bill, introduced by Mr. Pitt, had been passed, by which the power of the Directors was confided to three of their number who were to form a *Secret Committee*. The authority of the Directors in matters that formed the proper business of a great trading company was thus confirmed: but (1) a *Board of Control*, consisting of six members, was appointed by the Crown to exercise supreme authority, the President of the Board being directly responsible to Parliament; (2) no alliances were to be formed with native states, nor was any war to be entered on, except in self-defence, without the consent of the Court of Directors; (3) the Governor-General's 1784 A.D.

Council was reduced to three, one of whom was to be the Commander-in-Chief, and the other two Bengal civilians. Similar Councils were established at Madras and Bombay; (4) no servant of the Company was to engage in any monetary transactions with native princes; (5) the appointments of the Governor-General, Commander-in-Chief, and other higher officials was to be subject to the veto of the Crown. The general effect of the Bill was to take political power out of the hands of the Directors and give it to the Board of Control, that is, to the Ministry of the day.

259. **Hastings resigns.**—In consequence of the condemnation of his treatment of the Begams of Oudh by the Court of Directors, Hastings resigned. On the 1st February 1785 he sailed for England. In England, Hastings was at first received with great favour by the king, the ministers and the directors. But his inveterate enemy Francis, who was now in Parliament, pursued him even there. The great orator, Burke, and the leaders of the Whig party turned against him, and impeached him for his conduct in India. After a trial which lasted over seven years (February 13th, 1788, to April 23rd, 1795) he was fully and honourably acquitted. Once afterwards did Hastings appear in public. In 1813 he was summoned before the Houses of Parliament to give evidence on Indian affairs. In both places the noble, grey-haired old man was offered a chair while giving his evidence, an honour but seldom granted, and on leaving the House both Lords and Commons rose to do him honour.

CHAPTER XIII.

LORD CORNWALLIS: THE THIRD MYSORE WAR.

1786 A.D. TO 1793 A.D.

260. Lord Cornwallis.
261. Tippu's religious wars.
262. Tippu defeats the Nizam and the Mahrattas.
263. Tippu attacks Travancore. Tripartite alliance.
264. The Third Mysore war begins.
265. English retreat from Seringapatam.
266. Renewed attack on Seringapatam.
267. Peace of Seringapatam.

260. Lord Cornwallis.—It was felt that under the new form of government in India it would be better to have a Governor-General who was not a servant of the Company. Hastings, great though his ability was, had been forced again and again by the opposition and intrigues of the servants of the Company, who had at one time been his equals, to make compromises with them and his authority had thereby been weakened. By appointing an English nobleman, altogether unconnected with the Company and in no way fettered by local ties, those evils could not arise. Lord Cornwallis, a nobleman of great military and diplomatic ability, was therefore appointed to succeed Hastings with power to act, if necessary, independently of his Council. Lord Cornwallis was resolved to carry out the policy laid down in Pitt's Bill, and to avoid by every possible means war with the Native States. But circumstances arose that prevented him from carrying out these intentions.

261. Tippu's religious wars.—The treaty of Mangalore, 1784, had scarcely been concluded, when Tippu wrote to the French at Pondicherry that he was only waiting for an opportunity to crush the Mahrattas and the Nizam, and to exterminate the English. From that

time he proceeded to strengthen his army. He attacked the Native Christians of Kanara, and forced thirty thousand of them to profess the Muslim faith. Coorg was overrun and seventy thousand persons of all ages and of both sexes were carried off to Seringapatam and forced to become Musalmans. Elated by his success he no longer acknowledged the Emperor at Delhi as his Suzerain, but assumed the title of Padishah himself, and public prayers were offered for him instead of for Shah Alam II.

262. Tippu defeats the Nizam and the Mahrattas.—The growth of Tippu's power was a source of danger to the Nizam and the Mahrattas. They, accordingly, formed an alliance against him, but Tippu had the best of it in the war that followed, and peace was concluded, whereby Tippu agreed to pay forty-five lakhs of rupees as the tribute due by Haidar, and to restore all the territory he had taken during the war. In return, they acknowledged him Governor of almost the whole of India south of the Tungabhadra.

263. Tippu attacks Travancore.—After those successes, Tippu, puffed up with pride, began to look upon himself as a second Muhammad, whose duty it was to extend the Muslim faith by every means possible. He led his army into Malabar against the Nayars, and gave them the choice of death or conversion to the faith of Islam. Thousands true to their faith suffered death. Thousands fled to the jungles. Many took shelter in Travancore. Eight thousand temples were levelled with the ground. Tippu next attacked Travancore. The Nayars that had fled before him had obtained shelter there. The Raja of Travancore had purchased two forts from the Dutch, which Tippu maintained were within his provinces. The Raja had also built a wall for the protection of his State, which intercepted Tippu's advance to a portion of his

own territory of Cochin. At the head of fourteen thousand men he attacked the fortified wall. A breach was effected, and Tippu's soldiers mounted the walls. But, being suddenly fired on by a small company of Hindus, a panic seized them and they turned and fled carrying with them Tippu and his train. Those behind were forced off the walls into the ditch below, and Tippu was carried over the confused mass of dead and struggling men that filled up the gap. Tippu received bruises which lamed him for life. His palanquin, jewels, seals and rings fell into the hands of the victors. Two thousand of the flower of his army lay dead under the walls. Enraged and humiliated at this catastrophe, Tippu sent to Seringapatam for battering rams. On their arrival he quickly demolished the fortifications and converted Travancore into a desert.

264. The Third Mysore war begins.—The Raja of Travancore was an ally of the English, and they were bound to protect him from this Mysore tyrant. Both Nizam Ali and Nana Farnavis were in mortal dread of Tippu's increasing power. The former had just ceded Gantur to the English and received a subsidiary force at Haidarabad. The latter liked the English little, but he loved Tippu less. A *Tripartite Treaty* was entered into, by which the English, the Mahrattas, and the Nizam agreed mutually to defend each other from their enemies and to unite their forces to crush Tippu. On the conclusion of the war, the claims of the two latter on the territories of Mysore were to be granted to the fullest extent. War was declared. In January 1791 Lord Cornwallis arrived at Madras to himself take command of the army. Within a month of his arrival he had set out on his march, and by a clever movement arrived on the table-land of Mysore without Tippu knowing of his approach. Bangalore was taken by assault. The English army then advanced to Seringapatam. Tippu, in the greatest state of excitement at the

prospect of his capital being taken, ordered the foul words of insult to the English with which the walls were covered to be washed off. The prisoners were murdered so that no tales might be told of the miseries they had suffered. On the approach of the English, Tippu drew up his army in a most skilful manner at Arikera. But he was completely defeated and had to take refuge inside the walls of his capital.

265. **English retreat from Seringapatam.**—Complete success would now have crowned the campaign. But the English commissariat was in a bad way. Provisions were scanty. Tippu had laid waste the country. The oxen were reduced to mere skeletons. Disease, more deadly than war, invaded the camp. Cornwallis was forced to retreat, leaving his heavy siege train behind him. The day after the retreat was begun, Hari Punt appeared with his Mahrattas. Had he come sooner, Seringapatam would have fallen; but the Mahrattas had been busy plundering, heedless of the assistance they should have given to their allies.

266. **Renewed attack on Seringapatam.**—Lord Cornwallis remained in Bangalore till fresh troops and all necessary equipments should arrive from Madras. He employed the army in the interval in taking the hill forts or droogs, considered impregnable by the people of Mysore, and in overrunning the Baramahal. In January 1792 his arrangements were completed, and he again set out for Seringapatam. The campaign was begun on a scale not seen in India since the days of Aurangzeb. The infantry, battering train, field-pieces and baggage moved in three parallel columns, while a hundred waggons loaded with liquors, and sixty thousand bullocks, belonging to the *Brinjaris* or hereditary oxen-drivers, loaded with provisions brought up the rear. The natives were struck

with amazement at the resources of the English. Tippu is said to have exclaimed, "It is not what I see of the resources of the English that I dread, but what I do not see." The Nizam's army of eight thousand men, gaily dressed but badly armed, and Hari Punt's small body of Mahrattas accompanied the English. Tippu awaited their arrival. His defences consisted of three lines protected by three hundred cannon, the earth-works being covered with prickly plants through which it seemed impossible for man or beast to penetrate. During the night Lord Cornwallis himself led his men to the attack. Before morning the enemy's redoubts were taken, and the English had gained a footing on the island on which Seringapatam is built. Tippu's loss in this attack was four thousand men, while probably four times that number took advantage of the defeat to desert.

267. Peace of Seringapatam.—Tippu was bewildered. He began to fear he might lose his crown and his kingdom. The siege works of the enemy were being advanced with the utmost expedition. The fall of Seringapatam was now only a question of time. Nothing could save Tippu but prompt submission. One of the English prisoners was sent to Lord Cornwallis. The Governor-General offered peace on condition, *first*, that Tippu should surrender one-half of his territories to be divided between the English and their allies; *second*, that he should pay three crores and thirty lakhs of rupees; *third*, that all prisoners should be set free; and *fourth*, that Tippu's two sons should be delivered to the English as hostages till the terms of the treaty were fulfilled. Tippu assembled his officers in the great mosque. The terms of peace were read and the question put by Tippu, "Shall it be peace or war?" No alternative was left. Their only hope of retaining any power or territory was by accepting these conditions, and Tippu put his signature

and seal to them that very day. The Mahrattas and the Nizam, though they had given no assistance to the English during the war, received equal shares with them of the treasure and territory. The Mahrattas extended their boundary to the Tungabhadra, the Nizam to the Pennar, while the English secured to themselves the Baramahal on the east, Dindigul on the south, and a large extent of territory on the Malabar coast including Tellicherry and Calicut. The peace of Seringapatam was finally concluded on the 18th of March, much to the disappointment of the English soldiers who had hoped personally to have freed their captive countrymen from their dungeons, and to have revenged the sufferings they had endured. But an opportunity of punishing Tippu was still to be granted them in 1799.

1792 A.D.

CHAPTER XIV.

ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS OF LORD CORNWALLIS.

1793 A.D.

268. The Revenue.
269. The Zemindars.
270. The Permanent Revenue Settlement.
271. Reforms of the Courts.
272. Third Capture of Pondicherry.

268. The Revenue.—Brilliant as were the successes of Lord Cornwallis in the war against Tippu, and great the credit those successes reflected on him, the fame of his administration rests still more on the changes he introduced into the revenue and the judicial institutions of the country. From time immemorial all the land in the country was the property of the Raja or the Emperor, and his revenue chiefly consisted of a certain proportion of the produce of the soil. To determine the proper share to be

paid by the ryot, the great financier Todar Mall, in the reign of Akbar, had all the lands measured and taxed according to their fertility. Agents were appointed to collect what was due as the Emperor's share, and great power was given them even to levying soldiers in carrying out their work. As was the case with almost all Hindu institutions, the office of collector became hereditary, and in course of time the collector's power became so great that he set himself up as a *Raja* or *Zemindar*, and became entire master of the district.

269. The Zemindars.—Hastings, as we have seen, did not acknowledge these zemindars as masters or proprietors of their districts, but simply as collectors of revenue, and he farmed out the lands to the highest bidder. But this system had proved a failure. The agents who thus secured the land had no certainty of retaining it. They might be turned out in favour of still higher bidders. The consequence was, neither agents nor ryots would expend their money in improving the soil. The land accordingly deteriorated. The crops became poorer and poorer. The Government were forced to make remissions and their revenue suffered.

When Lord Cornwallis landed in Calcutta, he declared "that no class of society appeared to be flourishing except the money-lenders, and that both cultivators and landlords were sinking into poverty and wretchedness." The Court of Directors resolved to remedy these evils. In April 1786 they wrote condemning the system of letting out the revenue to men who had no interest in the land except to squeeze as much money as they could out of the ryots, and ordered that the land should be restored to the old zemindars and engagements made with them. The settlement was to be made for ten years, and if it should prove satisfactory, to be then declared permanent.

270. The Permanent Revenue Settlement.—In 1793 the *permanent settlement* was promulgated. The zemindars were created the landlords of the soil and made responsible for a fixed permanent revenue to the Government. A large and rich class of landlords was thus created who, safe in the possession of their estates, might be expected to advance cultivation, and thereby add to the wealth of the country. But in the settlement the interests of the ryots were somewhat overlooked. They had a claim to the land that dated from centuries before the zemindars existed: and though from this time the zemindar was appointed only as a medium through which the resident cultivators paid their rent to the Government, still these cultivators have gradually diminished in numbers, and the ryots are now almost exclusively at the mercy of the zemindars. The result of the settlement was at the time probably good on the whole. There were not enough cultivators in Bengal, so the zemindars, to get their lands cultivated at all, had to pay them well. As population increased however, and the number of cultivators wanting land, they came more and more into the power of the zemindars; and the people of the Lower Provinces of Bengal are not, taking into consideration the great fertility of the land and the general abundance of the water-supply, so prosperous as those of other parts of India where other forms of land settlement prevail. Moreover, the revenue of Government from Bengal has not increased as it has from other parts of India, and taxes have had to be imposed like the income-tax and the salt-tax to make up the deficiency. In fact it may be said that Cornwallis' policy, though it was benevolent in intention, favoured the zemindars at the expense of the ryots and the Government, that is, of the people of India in general.

271. Reforms of the Courts.—Lord Cornwallis also introduced changes into the judicial institutions of the Presidency. The English Collector had hitherto not only administered the revenue of his collectorate but had acted also as judge and magistrate. The duties of the Collector were from this time limited to matters affecting the revenue, and he was placed under a *Board of Revenue*; while judges were appointed over civil courts that were established in the districts. Changes were also made in the criminal courts. Cornwallis placed the whole administration of the country into the hands of the officers of the Company. Under his rule no native could hope by industry and ability to rise to high employment in the service, not even in the judicial department. How different from the present rule, by which there is almost no office under the Crown which a native may not ultimately aspire to gain.

272. Third Capture of Pondicherry.—In 1793 Lord Cornwallis returned to England and was succeeded by Sir John Shore. Before he left, however, the French Convention declared war on England and Pondicherry was taken by the English *for the third time.*

CHAPTER XV.

SIR JOHN SHORE (LORD TEIGNMOUTH). 1793-98

273. Sir John Shore; non-intervention policy. | 274. The Oudh succession.

273. Sir John Shore; non-intervention policy.—Sir John Shore, a servant of the Company, was appointed to succeed Lord Cornwallis. He had shown the greatest ability in the preparation of the Permanent Revenue Settlement, and to him as much as to Lord Cornwallis

credit was due for the promulgation of the measure. He was a man of the highest honour and probity, and was considered by Mr. Dundas, the President of the Board of Control, to have a peculiar fitness for the high and responsible office to which he was appointed. Sir John Shore was pledged to the non-intervention policy. The strictness with which he adhered to that part of Pitt's Bill of forming no alliance without the consent of the Home Board greatly weakened the English authority, and set both the Mahrattas and Tippu free to carry out their schemes for their aggrandisement. The Mahratta leaders *for the last time* assembled under the banner of the Peshwa and attacked Nizam Ali. The Nizam applied to the English for assistance. By the Tripartite Treaty formed against Tippu, each of the allies was bound to protect the others from their enemies. The Nizam and Nana Farnavis had both been parties to this treaty. They were now at war with each other. Whom was Sir John Shore to help? The Mahrattas would be certain to crush the Nizam and their power would become a great danger to the English. Sir John however stuck to his instructions and remained neutral. The result of the war (which is described in Chapter XVII) was the total defeat of the Nizam at Kurdla and a great extension of Mahratta power.

274. The Oudh succession.—The chief event in the administration of Sir John Shore was the change he made in the Oudh succession. In 1797 Asaf-ud-daulah died. His rule had been as weak as it had been oppressive. Money had been wrung from the ryot and had been squandered in wasteful luxury and debauchery at the capital. The presence of the British brigade was the only power that prevented internal anarchy or foreign invasion. On the death of Asaf-ud-daulah, Sir John Shore recognized Vizier Ali as his successor. Subsequently, it was reported that this Vizier Ali was not a son of the late

Nawab, but the offspring of a man of the lowest caste. Sir John Shore proceeded to Lucknow to investigate the case. After the most careful enquiry he found that Asaf-ud-daulah had left no legitimate heir, and Saadat Ali, brother of the late Nawab, was placed on the masnad. Vizier Ali was sent to Benares, and a liberal pension was allowed him. In 1798, Sir John Shore, who had been created Lord Teignmouth, sailed for England. Sir John Shore's settlement of the Oudh succession gained him great favour with both the English and the natives, because they felt that "the right had come to the rightful." But, in his policy with the Nizam and Tippu he showed great weakness, and although on leaving India he declared that Tippu would certainly avail himself of any fair opportunity to re-establish the power and reputation he had lost in his former contest with the English, he had taken no efficient steps to keep the army in a state of readiness for such an emergency.

CHAPTER XVI.

MARQUIS OF WELLESLEY: FOURTH MYSORE WAR.

1798 A.D. TO 1805 A.D.

275. The British to be the Paramount Power.
276. The Subsidiary System.
277. Fourth Mysore War begins.
278. Storm of Seringapatam.
279. The results of the war.
280. Tanjore brought under English rule.
281. The Carnatic taken over by the English.
282. North-West Provinces ceded to the English.

275. The British to be the Paramount Power.—Lord Mornington, better known by his subsequent title, the Marquis of Wellesley, succeeded Sir John Shore. He had been but a short time in India when he saw that the

policy of trying to maintain peace by a *balance of power*, that is, by not allowing any one state in India to become so powerful that it might swallow up another state, must be given up, and that the only security for British interests was *to establish the British as the Paramount Power in the land*. The French influence was at the moment very strong. The Nizam and Sindia had both of them French armies in their service. Tippu's forces were being drilled by French officers, and Tippu was trying to form an alliance with France to drive the English out of the Peninsula. The Marquis of Wellesley proceeded at once to counteract this French influence and to bring about the fall of Tippu. To this end he first formed an alliance with the Nizam, by which the Nizam agreed to receive a subsidiary force of six thousand men with artillery.

276. The Subsidiary System.—This system, which was introduced so largely by the Marquis of Wellesley, may be briefly described. Under it the Native States surrendered their international life, that is, they could form no alliances either offensive or defensive without the consent of the British power. They could not entertain a Frenchman in their service. They had to maintain a force commanded by British officers, the charges of which were met by the assignment of territory to the English. In return the English pledged themselves to defend those states from foreign enemies. Such was the nature of the treaty with the Nizam. The French sepoys at Haidarabad were accordingly disbanded, and a subsidiary force under English officers was stationed there. The Governor-General tried to form a similar treaty with Nana Farnavis and subsequently with Sindia, but neither of them would listen to his overtures, although they continued on friendly terms with the English. They feared Tippu; but they were not prepared to become feudatories of the English power.

277. **Fourth Mysore War begins.**—Meanwhile, Tippu had been strengthening his forces by every means possible. His army, magnificently equipped and well drilled by French officers, was now in a high state of efficiency, and it was well known he was only waiting an opportunity to lead his soldiers against the English. In 1798 the storm burst. Tippu had sent envoys to the French in the Mauritius proposing an offensive and defensive alliance. The Governor of that island, in the wildest joy at the prospect of forming an alliance with the mighty Raja of Mysore, issued a proclamation making known the objects of the mission and calling on the citizens to enlist under the banners of Tippu. This proclamation reached Calcutta. The news also arrived that the great Napoleon Buonaparte had landed in Egypt, and it was rumoured that a French expedition was actually on its way down the Red Sea, bound for India. Tippu likewise received an embassy from the Mauritius and enrolled himself as a citizen of the French Republic. There was nothing for it but war. The Marquis of Wellesley set out for Madras that he might be near the scene of operations. General Harris, the Commander-in-Chief, at the head of eighteen thousand men with one hundred and four cannon, marched from Madras. He was joined by a force of sixteen thousand men belonging to the Nizam, which, under British officers, formed now an effective body of troops. General Stuart was ordered to march from Malabar and join the main army. Tippu's policy was plain enough. He must, if possible, prevent a union of those armies. He hastened first to meet General Stuart and took him by surprise at Sedasir; but was defeated with a loss of two thousand men. He next hurried on to meet the army advancing from Madras; but, at Mallavelli, thirty miles from Seringapatam, Tippu's troops fled before the charge of the English infantry, and Tippu was forced to seek safety behind the walls of his capital. General Harris

1799 A.D.

followed and took up his position outside the city, and was soon joined by the Malabar force under General Stuart.

Tippu, now driven into his capital with little chance of escape, lost all presence of mind. Instead of taking means to defend the town and protract the siege, he gave himself up to grief and despair. He summoned his council and asked them what was their determination.

1799 A.D. "To die along with you" was the unanimous reply. Astrologers were consulted, and the Brahmans, whom he had so hated and persecuted, were sent for. Large sums of money were given to them to perform incantations, by which the fall of his kingdom might be averted. Prayers were ordered to be offered in Muslim mosques and Hindu temples. But Tippu's doom was near. He sent to General Harris asking for peace. Peace was offered, but on such terms as to reduce Tippu to the position of a nominal Raja, like the Nawab of Bengal. Tippu, enraged at such a proposal, resolved rather to die than add one more to the number of Rajas, who were pensioners of the "infidel" English.

278. Storm of Seringapatam. — General Harris, meanwhile, continued to bombard the town. On the 3rd May a breach was effected. The following day Sir David Baird, who had formerly been a prisoner for four years in the dungeons of Seringapatam, at the head of four thousand men, stormed the breach, and in a few minutes planted the English flag on the battlements. Tippu's troops fought with the utmost bravery. It was of no avail. The English forced their way. The city was taken. Under a low gateway where the fight had been the thickest, amongst a mass of dead and dying, lay Tippu, scarcely distinguishable in death. His body was carried to the palace and buried with royal honours in the tomb erected for his father.

Thus ended a short but, while it lasted, a powerful and vigorous dynasty. It has been said "Haidar was born to create an empire, Tippu to lose one." Tippu, unlike his father, was a considerable scholar. He carried on a large correspondence himself and wrote an account of his own exploits. In his policy of religious intolerance, of waging religious wars on all sides and compelling the people to become Mussalmans, he was a marked contrast to Haidar, who caring little for religion granted the utmost toleration to his subjects. The cruel way in which Tippu treated his prisoners and the bitter enmity he showed to the English have led him to be regarded as a monster of cruelty. But when the English entered his territory they found the land well cultivated and the people happy and strongly attached to their sovereign, which shows that within his own kingdom his power and influence had been on the whole well used.

279. The results of the war.—The family of Tippu was deposed and his two sons were sent to Vellore, a liberal pension being allowed them. Canara, Coimbatore, and the Wynaad were taken possession of by the English. Territory adjoining the province of Haidarabad was given to the Nizam. This territory was subsequently ceded to the English to meet the expense of maintaining a subsidiary force, and it consequently became known as the Ceded Districts. An infant son of the old Mysore family was declared Maharaja of the remaining territory.

280. Tanjore brought under English rule.—The Marquis of Wellesley next turned his attention to Tanjore. For years the people of Tanjore had been groaning under oppression and misgovernment. The cultivators were ground down by the renters, and frequently the servants of the Raja would carry off whole crops while the ryots looked helplessly on. In 1786 it

was reported that as many as sixty-five thousand of the inhabitants had fled from the district. The Raja died and there was now a dispute as to the succession. The Madras Government were asked to settle the dispute. The Marquis of Wellesley did so by taking the government of the country into his own hands, and giving a pension to each of the claimants.

281. The Carnatic taken over by the English.—Affairs in the Carnatic were equally bad. The aged Muhammad Ali died in 1795, and was succeeded by his eldest son Umdut-ul-umra. In the late war with Tippu this Nawab had again and again put obstructions in the way of the Marquis of Wellesley, and on the capture of Seringapatam treacherous correspondence between him and Tippu had been discovered. On the death of Umdut-ul-umra in 1801 all civil and military authority was taken from the Nawab's family, and the entire administration of the Carnatic was transferred to the English. As in the case of Tanjore, a liberal pension was granted to the new and nominal Nawab. Thus, during those three eventful years, the Madras Presidency was extended from the Coromandel coast to the Malabar coast and southward to Cape Comorin; while on the north it reached as far as the Krishna and the Godavari.

282. North-West Provinces ceded to the English.—The Marquis of Wellesley had also to interfere in the affairs of Oudh. Saadat Ali was oppressing his subjects very much. His army was not kept in the efficient state promised by the subsidiary treaty. There was danger of an invasion by Zaman Shah, a descendant of Ahmad Shah Abdali. The Governor-General, therefore, forced the Nawab to cede those territories now comprising a great part of the North-West Provinces, for the maintenance of a force sufficient to defend the country.

CHAPTER XVII.

MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE TREATY OF SALBAI TO THE TREATY OF BASIN.

1782 A.D. TO 1801 A.D.

283. Holkar and Sindia families.
284. Sindia Deputy of the Emperor.
285. Sindia and Nana Farnavis.
286. Battle of Kurdla.
287. Baji Rao II., the last of the Peshwas.
288. Treaty of Basin
289. English take Baroda.

283. Holkar and Sindia families.—For many years after the treaty of Salbai the relations of the Mahrattas to the English were of a friendly character. But during this period Mahratta history is marked by the growing influence and internecine quarrels of the great Mahratta families, particularly those of Holkar and Sindia. Mulhar Rao Holkar, the founder of the Holkar family, died in 1766. He first brought himself into notice by his bravery and ability in 1724, and during the next forty years attained to high rank, and played a distinguished part in Mahratta history. His only son died before him and his grandson outlived him but a short time. Ahalya Bai, the widow of the former, thereby became the lawful heir. She adopted Tukaji Holkar, an experienced silidar, but no relation of the family, and gave him the command of the army, while she herself took under her own management the civil administration. She was one of the most remarkable women that ever lived. Under her rule Indor rose from a petty village to a large and flourishing city. She is now worshipped in Malwa as an incarnation of the deity. Tukaji Holkar succeeded Ahalya Bai and ruled till his death in 1795, and his third son Jeswant Rao, a noted freelance and robber, eventually succeeded to the

government of Indor. In 1761, before the death of Mulhar Rao Holkar, Mahadaji Sindia became the head of the Sindia family. He was an illegitimate son of Ranoji, the founder of the family, who came into notice along with Mulhar Rao Holkar in 1724. Mahadaji was wounded at the battle of Panipat. Later he overran Bundlekhand and compelled the Rajputs to pay tribute, and when Shah Alam sought his protection, Agra and Delhi had fallen into his hands.

284. Sindia Deputy of the Emperor.—In 1790 Sindia was appointed Deputy of the Emperor to the Peshwa. He thus held by authority the executive power in Hindustan, and a rank higher than all the ministers of the Peshwa's court. So elated was Sindia by his success that he demanded chauth even from the English in Bengal, a claim that was indignantly refused, and the impropriety of which Sindia had to acknowledge. But all this power and territory which Sindia had acquired brought with it its troubles. He required money to keep up his army and to defray the expenses of Shah Alam's household. To meet this outlay he sequestrated the jaghirs of many Muhammadan chiefs, and taxed the Rajputs so heavily that they rose against him and drove him out of Rajputana. The Muhammadans, headed by Ismael Beg and Ghulam Kadir, son of the Rohilla chieftain Zabitah Khan, took up arms, captured Delhi and obtained possession of the Emperor's person. Ghulam Kadir put out the Emperor's eyes with a dagger; every member of the royal family was dishonoured and degraded, and some were starved to death. Such atrocities were too much for Ismael Beg. He went over to Sindia. The Mahratta army advanced to Delhi, where they were received with the greatest joy. The Emperor's person was secured and Ghulam Kadir taken and put to a horrible death.

1788 A.D.

285. Sindia and Nana Farnavis.— Sindia's success made him a dangerous rival to Nana Farnavis. The aim of the latter was to cement the Mahratta confederacy under the authority of the Peshwa, which at this time meant himself; while the whole conduct of Sindia showed that he wanted to set up an independent state, if not to be supreme in the Empire. Sindia's independence had been already acknowledged by the English. He had acted the part of a mediator between them and the court of Puna, and become guarantee of a peace (Salbai) honourable to the Mahrattas. He had Shah Alam under his protection. He had been appointed Shah Alam's Deputy to the Peshwa, and the office had been made hereditary. His army, disciplined by a M. de Boigne, a Frenchman, was the finest in India, and though Sindia pretended that this force belonged to the Emperor, this did not deceive Nana Farnavis, Holkar, and the other Mahratta leaders. Sindia resolved to go to Puna. The professed object of the visit was to invest the Peshwa with the insignia of the office of Vakil-i-Mutlaq, or supreme Deputy, a dignity first conferred on the great Nizam-ul-mulk by Muhammad Shah. But Sindia meant, if possible, to overthrow the Brahman influence, and to make himself supreme in Maharashtra. The pomp and grandeur displayed at the ceremony of investiture was beyond anything ever witnessed in Puna. Sindia himself affected the utmost humility, declaring himself to be fit only to carry the Peshwa's slippers, and desiring to be addressed by no higher title than that of Patell, headman of a village. At the same time he was trying to ingratiate himself with the Peshwa, and to prevail on him to desert Nana Farnavis and put himself under his protection. Sindia's career, however, was suddenly brought to a close. He was attacked by fever and died on the 12th February 1794. He was succeeded by his nephew Daulat Rao Sindia.

1790 A.D.

286. Battle of Kurdla.—Nana Farnavis was again supreme in directing the affairs of the Peshwa. A dispute arose between him and Nizam Ali, because the latter had not paid the tribute agreed upon after the battle of Udgir. *For the last time* the Mahratta chiefs assembled under the Peshwa's banner, and at Kurdla the Nizam was defeated. Nana Farnavis had now reached the zenith of his power. But the Mahratta confederacy had lost its cohesion. From this time the leaders began to act for themselves, and to set up independent states. A romantic friendship had been formed between Madu Rao, the Peshwa, and Baji Rao, the son of Raganath Rao. After Madu Rao, Baji Rao was the nearest heir to the throne. Nana Farnavis placed Baji Rao in confinement. In a fit of grief Madu Rao threw himself from the terrace of his palace and died in two days.

1795 A.D.

287. Baji Rao II., the last of the Peshwas—1796-1818.—On the death of Madu Rao, the court at Puna became a complete net-work of political intrigue; but in December 1796 Baji Rao was at last seated on the masnad. In 1800 Nana Farnavis died, and with him departed "all the wisdom and moderation of the Mahratta Government." Disorders became everywhere prevalent. Baji Rao was completely under the control of Daulat Rao Sindia. Jaswant Rao, though an illegitimate son, had succeeded Tukaji Holkar. He united to his fortunes Amir Khan, an Afghan adventurer, invaded Malwa and plundered Ujjain. Sindia retaliated by advancing against Indor. Jaswant Rao, with a force of thirty thousand men, hurried on to the relief of his capital. But he was thoroughly defeated, and Indor was completely plundered. Had Sindia followed up his victory, the power of Jaswant Rao might have been annihilated. But he failed to do so, and Jaswant Rao, quickly gathering around him an army of

daring brigands and freebooters that delighted in plunder, came up with the united forces of the Peshwa and Sindia near Puna. The battle was one of the most obstinate ever fought in India. Holkar gained a complete victory. The whole of Sindia's guns, baggage and stores fell into his hands. Baji Rao fled to Basin and put himself into the hands of the English. 1801 A.D.

288. Treaty of Basin.—At Basin, Baji Rao entered into a treaty with the English. The chief terms were: (1) a subsidiary force was to be permanently stationed in the Peshwa's territory, and districts yielding twenty-six lakhs of rupees were to be assigned by the Peshwa for its maintenance; (2) no European of a nation hostile to the English was to be entertained by the Peshwa; (3) the Peshwa gave up his claims to Surat, and submitted the adjustment of his claims on the Nizam and the Gaikwar to English arbitration; (4) the Peshwa bound himself to be the faithful ally of the English. The English, on the other hand, promised to protect him and his kingdom. 1802 A.D.

289. English take Baroda.—Meanwhile the English had been called on to settle affairs in Gujarat. Govind Rao had died and there was a dispute about the succession. Baroda was taken and Gujarat brought under the English protection.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE SECOND MAHRATTA WAR.

1802 A.D. TO 1803 A.D.

290. Results of the Treaty of Basin.
291. The Second Mahratta War begins.
292. Bhonsle defeated.
293. Sindia defeated.

290. Results of the Treaty of Basin.—The Treaty of Basin was the turning point in the history of India. It unavoidably led England into the greatest war she has ever waged in India, and by her triumphant success in that war her supremacy was established. By that treaty the Peshwa had sacrificed his independence, and had acknowledged England as a paramount power. It was hardly to be expected that Sindia and the other Mahratta leaders, none of whom had been consulted, would accept such a treaty. Daulat Rao Sindia had been following the policy of his distinguished uncle, Mahadaji, and had hoped to overthrow the Peshwa's power and establish himself head of the Mahratta Empire. Raghuji Bhonsle of Barar, like his predecessors, had no love for the Brahman supremacy, and hoped that, as descendants of the great Sivaji, his family might obtain power in Maharashtra. But though both Sindia and Bhonsle loved the Peshwa but little, they loved the English still less, for they saw that the growth of that power would not only frustrate all their hopes of future aggrandizement, but might even lead to their own overthrow and loss of independence. They therefore refused to accept the treaty of Basin. Sindia crossed the Narbada and joined Raghuji Bhonsle. War was declared. Holkar remained inactive watching the issue of events. Meanwhile the

Governor-General's brother, General Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, who had marched to Puna and reinstated Baji Rao on the throne, had been invested with full powers as Political Agent of the Governor-General, and Commander-in-Chief of the British troops in the Deccan.

291. **The Second Mahratta War begins.**—The campaign was arranged by the Marquis of Wellesley on a scale hitherto unknown in the annals of the English in India. The Mahrattas were to be attacked on all sides. No less than seven armies, varying in strength from ten to three thousand men, were to take the field. *The first* under General Wellesley encamped near Ahmadnagar; *the second*, under Colonel Stevenson was on the Godavari; *the third*, under General Stewart formed a covering force between the Krishna and the Tungabhadra; *the fourth*, under General Lake was at Cawnpur to attack Sindia's possessions in Hindustan; *the fifth* was at Allahabad ready to act on Bundelkhand; *the sixth* was to invade Katak; and *the seventh* was sent to Gujarat to take Broach.

292. **Bhonsle defeated.**—On the 8th August 1803 General Wellesley began the war by storming Ahmadnagar. Coming up with the united forces of Sindia and Bhonsle at Assai, a village situated at the confluence of the Kailna and the Juha, he gave battle. The odds were tremendous —four thousand five hundred English against fifty thousand Mahrattas. But at the first shot Raghuji Bhonsle fled. Sindia soon followed. The Mahratta artillery remained firm for a time and did great execution. But when the infantry broke, the battle was lost and ninety-eight cannon remained in the victor's hands. On the English side more than one-third of those engaged were either killed or wounded, but a victory had been gained

more splendid than any recorded in the history of the Deccan. Burhanpur and the fort of Asirgarh were taken by Stevenson. Wellesley marched into Barar and defeated the Raja at Argam. This victory led to the capture of Gawilghar, the remaining stronghold of the Bhonsle in Barar. This forced Raghuji Bhonsle to come to terms. On the 16th of December he signed a peace at Dewalgaon in the Ajunta hills. By this treaty Raghuji ceded to the English the province of Katak, including Balasore. All the territory west of the Wardha and south of Gawilghar was given to the Nizam. All claims on the Nizam were renounced. No subject of a nation at war with England was to be entertained without the consent of the English Government. A resident was to be received at Nagpur.

1803 A.D.

293. **Sindia defeated.**—Meanwhile the English armies had been no less successful against Sindia's possessions. General Lake captured Aligarh (Aug. 29), and advanced to Delhi. Sindia's army was commanded by one Louis Bourquin, a Frenchman. The English charged with the bayonet, and Sindia's army was unable to withstand the fury of the onset. General Lake entered Delhi in triumph, and took the aged blind Emperor Shah Alam II. into his protection. Agra was next captured. By the decisive victory of Laswari (Nov. 1) the French battalions in Sindia's army were broken up, and all Sindia's territories south of the Chambal, with Agra and Delhi, were placed in the power of the English Government. The army in Gujarat captured Broach and Champanir. Bundelkhand was overrun by Colonel Powell. Sindia, vanquished at every point, deserted by the Raja of Barar, his splendid army almost annihilated, was forced to sue for peace. On the 30th December he signed a treaty on much the same lines as that of Dewalgaon. All the territories between the Jumna and the Ganges, and all

north of the Rajput states of Jaipur and Jodhpur were ceded to the English and their allies. The cities of Agra and Delhi, the capitals of the Mughal Empire, thus fell into the hands of the English. They also received Broach in Gujarat. Ahmadnagar was given to the Peshwa, and an extensive district to the Nizam. Bundelkhand was taken by the English in exchange for the districts in the Mahratta country that had been ceded for the support of the subsidiary force by the treaty of Basin. The same conditions were made with reference to Europeans, and to Sindia receiving a resident at his court, as in the treaty of Dewalgaon. This treaty is known as The treaty of Sirji Anjengaon. 1803 A.D.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE THIRD MAHRATTA WAR.

1804 A.D. TO 1805 A.D.

294. Holkar's attitude.
295. Cause of the Third Mahratta War.
296. Plan of the Campaign.
297. Retreat of Colonel Monson.
298. Holkar defeated.
299. End of the Marquis of Wellesley's administration.

294. Holkar's attitude.—Within four months Sindia and Raghuji Bhonsle had been thoroughly defeated and had been glad to sue for peace. The rapid and victorious career of the English had startled the whole of India. Holkar had been waiting to see what turn events were likely to take, so that when one side or the other was exhausted, he might throw himself in and obtain a preponderance of influence. But before he could make up his mind what to do, he found that the English had realized their object and that Sindia and Bhonsle had been completely reduced.

295. Cause of the Third Mahratta War.—The English had no desire to go to war with Jaswant Rao Holkar. He was an illegitimate son and his legitimate brother had been put aside. But the English had nothing to do with that. So long as Holkar kept within his own territories the English would not interfere. Holkar pretended at first that he wanted peace. Shortly afterwards he began to make the most extravagant and insulting demands, and addressed a letter to General Wellesley of the most threatening kind. He entered Rajputana and collected chauth. As by the last treaty with Sindia the Rajputs had become allies of the English, the English were bound to protect them from their enemies. Holkar was called on to withdraw. He refused. War was declared, the object being to utterly crush out a power that so long as it existed was likely to disturb the peace of the Empire.

April 1804 to Dec. 1805.

296. Plan of the Campaign.—Holkar was no mean foe. His army had been greatly strengthened by fugitives from the defeated armies, and now numbered sixty thousand cavalry and fifteen thousand infantry, with one hundred and ninety-two pieces of artillery. General Lake was ordered to advance southward into Rajputana, and Wellesley to march north from the Deccan. Holkar was thus hemmed in between two armies. But there was famine in the Deccan and Wellesley could not move for want of supplies. Colonel Murray was therefore ordered from Gujarat with a force sufficient to co-operate with General Lake. On the arrival of General Lake in Rajputana the troops of Holkar beat a hasty retreat. Holkar's territory was then invaded and the fortress of Tank Rampura captured. The rains setting in Colonel Monson was left to keep Jaswant Rao in check, while General Lake returned with the main army to cantonments.

297. **Retreat of Colonel Monson.**—Colonel Monson crossed the Chambal. As he hoped to be joined by Colonel Murray from Gujarat, and by a force which Daulat Rao Sindia had promised to send from Ujjain, he advanced through the pass of Mokhundra into Holkar's territory. But he soon began to find himself in difficulties. His supplies were running short. Treachery was in his camp. Reports were brought to him that Colonel Murray had fallen back into Gujarat. He therefore retreated to the Mokhundra Pass, leaving the irregular cavalry to follow. The cavalry were dispersed by Holkar, and the forces that had been sent by Sindia deserted to the enemy. At the pass of Mokhundra the English force was attacked by the whole army of Holkar, but succeeded in driving them back. Ultimately, through many difficulties, with rivers swollen, marshy plains flooded and roads in which the cannon sank to the axletrees in mud, with scanty provisions in his camp, and much sickness and many deaths among his men, and with Holkar harassing his rear, Colonel Monson at length, on the 31st August, led the wreck of his army into Agra. The sick, the exhausted and the wounded were left behind and were cut to pieces. The cannon and the baggage were left fast in the mud. The effect of this retreat tended to dim the military lustre of the English for a time and considerably to strengthen Holkar. It gained for him an ally in the Raja of Bhartpur, and even the Jats and the Rajputs were shaken in their allegiance to the English Government. One or two similar disasters would have raised the whole of India against the English power.

298. **Holkar defeated.**—Holkar next captured Muttra. General Lake hastened from Cawnpur while Holkar in the most daring manner, and, by a rapid movement, led his infantry to Delhi for the purpose of taking the town and securing the person of the Emperor. The English

under Colonel Ouchterlony gallantly defended the place, and after seven days the siege was raised. General Lake subsequently attacked Holkar at Farakabad, and defeated him. General Frazer had meanwhile been sent against the Raja of Bhartpur, and had routed him in a great battle fought at Dig (13th Nov.); and the fort of Dig itself was subsequently taken. Holkar's dominions had also fallen into the possession of the English. An army from the Deccan had reduced Chandur and other fortresses, while Colonel Murray with his army from Gujarat had taken possession of Indor. The only strong place yet to be taken was Bhartpur. It was considered an impregnable fortress. For three months the English forces besieged it. On four occasions they tried to take it by storm; but failed, sustaining a loss of over three thousand men. While they were preparing to make another attack, the Raja came to terms, and paid twenty lakhs of rupees as the price of peace. Sindia observing the success of Holkar, threw off his allegiance to the British, plundered and detained Mr. Jenkins, the Resident, and marched with an army to the Chambal. Thither Holkar retreated on the fall of Bhartpur and received a hearty welcome.

23rd Dec. 1804 A.D.

10th April 1805 A.D.

299. End of the Marquis of Wellesley's administration.—In 1805 the Marquis of Wellesley returned to England. He was a statesman of the highest order. Having none of the narrow ideas of the servants of the Company, who regarded their own interests as all-important, he identified British interests with those of India, and instead of stooping to intrigue in attempting to adjust a balance of power among the Native States, he established the British Sovereignty as the Paramount Power in the land. He was the real founder of the Indian

Civil Service. He considered that a counting-house training was not at all suitable for men that were to be administrators of provinces and judges of courts. He therefore established a college at Calcutta, where the young servants of the Company on their arrival in the country might study History, Political Economy and the Indian languages. The Marquis of Wellesley was of small stature, and was known amongst his friends as "the glorious little man." And as long as the history of the British power remains, so long will this "glorious little man" occupy one of the highest places amongst the goodly roll of statesmen that have extended and consolidated that power in India.

BRITISH INDIA.

CHAPTER I.

LORD CORNWALLIS: SIR GEORGE BARLOW.

1805 A.D. TO 1807 A.D.

300. Non-intervention policy.
301. Lord Cornwallis again Governor-General.
302. Sir George Barlow—Peace at any price.
303. The Vellore Mutiny.
304. Causes of the Mutiny.

300. Non-intervention policy.—The administration of Lord Wellesley is generally considered to mark the time when the British power became paramount in India. But at the time of his retirement it seemed as though all his labours were to be wasted. A new spirit had come over the British nation, and a new policy was to be adopted. The brilliant success of the third Mahratta war had dazzled the public in England. Within a very few months the English, by force of arms, had come into possession of the capital of India, and had reduced the whole of Central India to dependence. But this new war with Holkar began to alarm the people at home. A class of politicians arose that condemned the system of annexation and conquest,—that condemned the subsidiary system. They advocated "a policy of non-intervention." The native states, they said, ought to be allowed to settle their own quarrels. They might call in the assistance of the neighbouring states, and thus large armies might be contending on the frontiers of the English possessions. But the English should not interfere. They should have a strong military force ever ready to act on the defensive, and no more.

301. Lord Cornwallis again Governor-General.—Moreover Wellesley's policy, successful though it had been, and the only policy that could have brought peace to the country, was condemned by the Board of Directors in England. The Governor-General, in the face of an Act of Parliament, had engaged in war against prince after prince from Cape Comorin to the Satlej. He had brought vast territories directly under British rule, and had concluded treaties with such powerful rulers as the Nizam and the Peshwa, by which they maintained subsidiary forces, and acknowledged the English power as their suzerain. The responsibilities thus thrown on the Company were enormous. The expenses of the late wars had emptied their treasury. The new alliances might lead them into further wars. The Directors became frightened, and requested Lord Cornwallis to proceed to India as Governor-General. Lord Cornwallis was opposed to the policy of Wellesley, and no sooner had he landed at Calcutta than he made known the change of policy that was to be followed. He set out for the upper provinces to arrange peace with Holkar and Sindia; but during the journey his health gave way, and he died at Ghazipur on the 5th October 1805.

302. Sir George Barlow—Peace at any price.—Sir George Barlow, the Senior Member of Council, assumed the office of Governor-General. He had steadily assisted and strongly upheld the Marquis of Wellesley in his policy of establishing the British as the paramount power. But now all was changed. As a servant of the Company he felt it to be his duty to obey their instructions to the letter. He quickly concluded a peace with Sindia. Though Lord Lake had Holkar in his power and was on the point of utterly crushing him, a treaty was also concluded with him, by which Holkar's territories were restored to him. Nor was this all. The Rajput States

had done great service to the English during the Mahratta wars, and the English had promised to protect them from their enemies. Sir George Barlow, notwithstanding the protest of Lord Lake, broke faith with the Rajputs, annulled the treaties and handed the Rajputs over to be ravished and plundered by Holkar's brigands. Lord Lake, thereupon, resigned in disgust and sailed for England. The Court of Directors wanted Sir George Barlow to go still further, to annul the treaty of Basin and the treaty with the Nizam; but to his credit be it stated that he refused to perpetrate such folly.

303. **The Vellore Mutiny.**—While peace was thus being procured at any price in the north of India, the whole of the Peninsula was thrilled by the news that the sepoys at Vellore had mutinied and killed their officers and many of the European soldiers. On the capture of Seringapatam, the two sons of Tippu, who had been taken prisoners, were removed to Vellore, where they lived on a liberal pension granted them by the Company. At Vellore there was a garrison of three hundred and seventy Europeans, and one thousand five hundred native troops. Many of the sepoys belonged to Mysore, and had formerly served under Tippu. Early on the morning of the 1st July they seized the main guard, took possession of the powder magazine and attacked the Europeans in their barracks, firing at them through the venetian windows. The officers' quarters were next attacked, and thirteen of the officers slain. The survivors—officers and men—tried to fight their way to the gate, but in the attempt the officers were killed. Sergeant Brodie then took the command, and under cover of a bastion of the gateway maintained a brave defence. When the news of the mutiny reached Arcot, Colonel Gillespie at the head of the 19th Dragoons, with two field

1806 A.D.

1806 A.D.

guns, galloped off to the relief. Soon at Vellore a cloud of dust was seen in the distance. Nearer still it came. The hearts of the little band that were so gallantly defending themselves beat high. A company of their own countrymen was coming to their aid, and far in front of the relief party came the commander galloping as if for life up to the gate of the fort. A rope made of the soldiers' belts was let down and Colonel Gillespie was pulled up the wall. The field guns were brought up to the gate, a breach was quickly made, and not until about four hundred sepoys had paid with their lives the penalty of their treachery, did the English soldiers desist from the carnage.

304. Causes of the Mutiny.—An investigation was at once made, and the cause of the mutiny was discovered. The Commander-in-Chief with the consent of Lord William Bentinck, the Governor of Madras, had introduced several innovations into the army regulations. The sepoys were no longer to appear on parade with earrings or their distinctive caste marks. They were to shave their chins and trim their beards after a certain model, and, what irritated them still more, they were no longer to wear their turbans, but a kind of head-dress that somewhat resembled a European hat. A rumour was circulated that these changes were introduced as preliminary to the sepoys all being forced to become Christians. This rumour the followers of Tippu's family greatly encouraged, and whenever a sepoy appeared he was mocked and upbraided by the Muhammadans for wearing this hat, which was regarded as a symbol of Christian belief. Other facts showed that the Tippu family had much to do with the mutiny. They and their followers longed for the restoration of their house to the throne of Mysore, and when the mutineers took possession of the fort, the royal flag of Mysore was hoisted on the flagstaff. The members of Tippu's family were therefore at once removed to

Calcutta. Several of the ringleaders in the mutiny were executed; others were dismissed the service. The new regulations were cancelled, and the Governor of Madras and the Commander-in-Chief were recalled to England.

CHAPTER II.

LORD MINTO.

1807 A.D. TO 1813 A.D.

305. Lord Minto.
306. Amir Khan.
307. The French scare.
308. Rise of the Sikhs.
309. Ranjit Singh of Lahor.
310. Mutiny at Madras.
311. The Mauritius captured.
312. Renewal of the Charter.

305. Lord Minto (1807-1813).—The next Governor-General, Lord Minto, came out to India intending to carry out the peace policy. He had scarcely been a few weeks in Calcutta when the riot and anarchy prevailing in Bundelkhand attracted his attention. Bundelkhand had been given to the English for the support of the subsidiary force at Puna. The weak Sir George Barlow, rather than go to war, had allowed this fair province to be overrun with banditti. A hundred and fifty castles were now held by as many chiefs who were at constant war with each other. These chiefs maintained their power by plunder and violence, and thereby converted one of the richest provinces of India into a desert. Lord Minto felt such a state of affairs to be discreditable to the English Government, and gave notice of his intention of leading an army into the district. Many of the petty chiefs yielded at once, and when the fort of Kalinger, which the great Mahmud of Ghazni had failed to capture, submitted, peace and prosperity were restored to the district.

306. Amir Khan.—Other circumstances arose that compelled Lord Minto to abandon the non-intervention

policy. Amir Khan, an adventurer, had raised himself to be chief of the Patans, and possessed the will, if he had had the ability, to re-establish the Afghan authority in the country. In the name of Holkar he claimed from the Raja of Barar certain jewels that the Raja had received from him, and invaded the country to enforce his demands. He was defeated by the Raja's troops, and, when he heard that Lord Minto had despatched a force to the Raja's aid, he quickly returned to Indor.

307. **The French scare.**—During this time fear of a French invasion seized the Government, and embassies were sent to Kabul and Teheran to conclude treaties, by which the French should not be allowed to march through Persia and Afghanistan. But, as the French scare died away, nothing came of those. It was otherwise with an embassy that was sent to the Sikh chief, Ranjit Singh, "The Lion of Lahor." And here it may be well to trace the rise of the Sikh power.

308. **Rise of the Sikhs.**—The word Sikh means disciple or devoted follower. The Sikhs were originally a religious sect, the followers of their founder, Nanak Shah. Nanak Shah was born in 1469. From childhood he gave himself much up to devotion and to practising austerities. He visited almost all the sacred places in India and went even to Mecca. He began to preach about 1490. He was more a reformer than the setter up of a new religion. His great aim was to reconcile the two great faiths of the Hindus and the Muhammadans in one religion. He called on the Hindus to cast aside their idols and return to the worship of the one God. He called on the Muhammadans to abstain from killing the cow and to desist from religious persecution. Love to God and love to our fellowmen was the doctrine he inculcated. The third Guru, or 'spiritual leader,'

after Nanak Shah, was murdered by the Muhammadans in 1606. The Sikhs, who up to this time had been an inoffensive peaceable sect, took to arms under Har Govind, a son of the murdered Guru, and unmercifully put to death every one that they suspected of being concerned in the murder. From this time, the Sikhs began to form themselves into bands of soldiers, and, when Tegh Bahadur, the ninth Guru, also fell a victim to the Muhammadan persecution, Guru Govind, his son, who was the tenth and last Guru, formed them into a nation of warriors. He saw that to contend successfully with the Muhammadans, the way must be left open for all classes of the Hindu community to join his standard. He, therefore, abolished all caste distinction. All that subscribed to his creed were on a level, and advancement depended on merit. He changed the name of his followers from Sikh to Singh, 'Lion,' thus giving them the honourable title hitherto granted only to Rajputs. All Guru Govind's disciples were required always to carry *steel* in some shape or other; to wear a blue dress; to allow their hair to grow; and to exclaim, when they met each other, "Success to the state of the Guru! Victory attend the Guru." The Sikhs, henceforth, instead of acting on the defensive as they had done under Har Govind, began to propagate their faith by the sword. Many were the battles fought between them and the Muhammadans. But in 1708 Guru Govind's forces were utterly broken up, and he had to flee under cover of the night from Chamkour. His children were massacred, his followers mutilated in the most cruel way, and he himself was forced to lead the life of a wanderer. On the death of Guru Govind, Banda, a great friend of the Guru, took up arms. Gathering the scattered Sikhs together, he entered Sarhind, avenged the massacre of Govind's family by putting the governor, his family and almost all the inhabitants of Sarhind to the sword. He polluted all

the mosques of the city, and subdued all the country between the Satlej and the Jumna. Banda was subsequently defeated by the Emperor and put to a horrible death. The Sikhs were hunted like wild beasts from one fort to another, and every means was taken, not only to destroy their power, but to exterminate the race. A proclamation was issued from Delhi ordering the death of all professing the faith of Nanak, and offering a reward for every Sikh head. The few Sikhs that escaped this order fled to the hills in the north-east of the Panjab. Nothing more was heard of them for thirty years, when they suddenly issued from their fastnesses and seized some of the plunder Nadir Shah was carrying off to Persia. From that time the Sikhs formed themselves into a kind of republic. There were many chiefs, each with his followers; but, at their Guru-Mata or national council, a military leader was always selected. Their history for many years is one of varying success. At one time we find them masters of Lahor; at another time we read of them being defeated with a loss of twenty thousand men by Ahmad Shah. On the death of that Afghan monarch, dissensions broke out at Kabul, and, as the House of Timur had fallen from its proud position in India, the Sikhs, with determined courage and indomitable perseverance, again overran and conquered Lahor and Sarhind. But they were no longer the united body they had been under Guru Govind. Every chief was desirous of increasing his own power and territory. This led to continual internal wars, and, when Holkar, flying in 1805 before Lord Lake, sought their assistance, only a few of the chiefs attended the Guru-Mata that was summoned, and those that were absent, threatened to resist any resolution this council (which was the last that was held) should decide on.

1738 A.D.

1805 A.D.

309. Ranjit Singh of Lahor.—The most powerful chief at that time was Ranjit Singh. He had assisted Zaman Shah when he entered the Panjab in 1799, and, in return, had been rewarded by a grant of the town of Lahor. He had gradually extended his power, until his authority was acknowledged throughout the Panjab as far as the Satlej. Between the Satlej and the Jumna lay the province of Sarhind, which for the most part was under Sikh chieftains. Ranjit Singh claimed authority over them, and they applied to the English for protection. It was on this account, as also to secure an alliance with Ranjit Singh, that Mr. (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe was sent to Lahor. The mission was wholly successful. A treaty "to establish perpetual amity between the British Government and the state of Lahor" was concluded; and so high an opinion did Ranjit Singh form of the English from the bearing of young Metcalfe that, until his death in 1839, he remained their constant and firm ally. The Sikh states between the Satlej and the Jumna were taken under the protection of the English, and a garrison was left at Ludhiana. Thus, after six years, the policy of the Marquis of Wellesley was again adopted, and the British standard advanced from the Jumna to the Satlej.

1810 310. Mutiny at Madras. — Meanwhile Sir George Barlow, who had been sent as Governor to Madras, had been making himself very unpopular. He had been called on by the Court of Directors to reduce expenditure in that Presidency. He, thereupon, proceeded to abolish the Tent Contract, by which the officers were furnished with a fixed monthly allowance for providing tent equipage to their regiments whether they were in the field or not. The officers mutinied and encouraged the men in rebellion. A skirmish actually took place between a mutinous regiment marching to Seringapatam and a body of faithful sepoys and English troops. Lord Minto arrived at Madras, and

by energy and tact put down the mutiny. Sir George Barlow was recalled.

311. **The Mauritius captured.**—There was peace in India during Lord Minto's administration. But as the Indian trade was being greatly interfered with by French men-of-war from the Mauritius and Bourbon, expeditions were fitted out, and those islands were captured. The Mauritius still belong to the English; but Bourbon was restored to France in 1814. Lord Minto returned to England in 1813, and died the same year.

312. **Renewal of the Charter.**—In 1793, the Company's Charter had been renewed for twenty years. It now came up again for consideration and was again renewed for another twenty years. Trade with India was thrown open to the whole nation. The Company were allowed to have the monopoly of the trade only with China. 1813 A.D.

CHAPTER III.

THE MARQUIS OF HASTINGS (LORD MOIRA).

1813 A.D. TO 1823 A.D.

313. The Marquis of Hastings.
314. War in Nepal.
315. Capture of Maloun.
316. Battle of Makwanpur.
317. Peace of Sigauli.

313. **The Marquis of Hastings.**—When Earl Moira, better known by his subsequent title, the Marquis of Hastings, landed at Calcutta, there was peace in India; but it was like the calm that often precedes the storm. Within a very short time wars were raging from Madras to the Himalayas, from Orissa to Gujarat.

314. War in Nepal.—The first war was in Nepal. The valley of Nepal is situated in the southern slopes of the Himalayas. It is bounded on the south by a lower range of the mountains from whose base stretches the broad belt of marshy plain known as the Tarai, which shuts off Nepal from Hindustan. From a remote period this fertile valley had been inhabited by an industrious and peaceful Hindu people called Newars, who devoted themselves to trade and commerce, and in religion were followers of Buddha. But about 1767, ten years after the battle of Plassey, a race of Rajputs and Brahmans from Kashmir, who called themselves Ghurkas, overran this happy valley, massacred every Newar of distinction, committed the most horrible atrocities on the inhabitants generally, and took possession of the land. The Ghurkas formed themselves into a nation of warriors and began to make raids on all the territories around them. They had the daring even to invade Tibet and plunder the temples of the sacred town of Lassa. But this brought in upon them a large army from China, which forced them to restore their plunder and to pay tribute. They invaded British territory and gradually absorbed one village after another. Sir George Barlow and Lord Minto had remonstrated in vain; but rather than go to war they both had allowed the Ghurkas to remain in possession of the lands they had stolen. It was calculated that, during the quarter of a century preceding the arrival of Lord Hastings, as many as two hundred British villages had been added to Nepal. Finally, the Ghurkas claimed and annexed two large territories in Oudh, and as there was no doubt that those belonged to the British, Lord Minto, before his departure, called on the authorities at Khatmandu to restore the territories, otherwise war would be declared. Lord Hastings had succeeded Lord Minto before an answer was received, and, as the Nepal Government again asserted their right to the territories, Lord Hastings fixed a day when

they must be given up to the English. The day passed. The Nepal Government remained obstinate. An army was at once ordered to take possession of the district. This had a wonderful effect on the leaders of the Ghurkas. They summoned a council. Amar Singh, their most renowned general, declared against going to war. "Fighting against the Newars," he said, "was like hunting deer: but fighting against the English would be like battling with tigers." Bhim Sein Thapa, the chief minister, held a different opinion. Alexander the Great could not penetrate the fastnesses of the mountains. The English had not been able to capture Bhartpur, which was but the work of men's hands. How then could they reduce their strongholds which were the work of the great Creator? Instead of yielding, the Ghurkas must extend their frontier to the Ganges. War was resolved on. In true Ghurka fashion, an army was at once sent into the district that had been taken possession of by the English, and when they had killed eighteen policemen, they returned to their stronghold in the mountains. 1814 A.D.

315. **Capture of Maloun.**—Four British divisions, amounting in all to thirty thousand men, with sixty guns, entered Nepal at four different points. The eastern column advanced on the capital, Khatmandu; the western column on the Satlej; and the other two between those. The operations of the year 1814 were anything but successful. One of the divisions commanded by General Gillespie, the hero of Vellore, advanced against the fortress of Kalinga and tried to take it by storm. But it was repulsed and the brave but foolhardy commander was killed. An attempt was next made to take the fort of Jytak, but without success. The division of the army acting on the east fled before the Ghurkas. It was different with the division in the west, which was commanded by General David Ouchterlony. He was a General

of the Clive stamp. He had acted under Sir Eyre Coote against Haidar Ali, and had gallantly defended Delhi when attacked by Jaswant Rao Holkar. The work assigned to him was the capture of Maloun. This fortress was situated high up the Himalayas, on a shelf of the mountain, with steep precipices of two thousand feet on two of its sides. Three ranges of hills, with deep valleys between, had to be crossed before Maloun could be reached, and on each range were strong fortresses. The Ghurka army was under Amar Singh, the general that had declared against going to war. The difficulties General Ouchterlony had to overcome were enormous. He had to march an army up the mountains, along narrow passes and precipices, and through intricate defiles; to make roads by blasting rocks and knocking down obstructions; and to drag his heavy guns with him. For five months, with extraordinary patience and daring, in the face of snow-storms and tempests, he pressed on, taking fort after fort, until he reached Maloun. The Ghurkas, entrenched behind stockades, fought with the utmost valour. The British charged with the bayonet, drove the enemy before them and secured the outposts. Amar Singh then came to terms, surrendered the fort, and was allowed to depart with the honours of war.

316. **Battle of Makwanpur.**—On the fall of Maloun, Jytak surrendered. On the east, the Ghurkas were defeated near Almora, and Kumaun was conquered. Bhim Sein Thapa, thereupon, was glad to sue for peace. The terms offered were that all the conquests of the Ghurkas west of the Kali should be surrendered, together with the whole Tarai, and that a resident should be received at Khatmandu. Amar Singh, who had arrived at Khatmandu, advised the Regent to refuse such terms, and to fight to the bitter end. The war was renewed. General, now Sir David Ouchterlony, was

appointed to the command. The Ghurkas were defeated at Makwanpur, and the fort of Hariharpur was captured.

317. Peace of Sigauli.—Sir David Ouchterlony then advanced to Khatmandu. But the defeat at Makwanpur had so alarmed the Nepal Government that they hastened to comply with Lord Hastings' former terms, and a peace was concluded at Sigauli. In the territories taken by the English are now situated the hill stations of Simla, Masuri, Landour and Naini Tal. 1816 A.D.

CHAPTER IV.

THE MARQUIS OF HASTINGS: THE PINDARI WAR.

1813 A.D. TO 1823 A.D.

318. Rise of the Pindaris.
319. Hastings resolves to extirpate the Pindaris.
320. Plan of the campaign.
321. Peace with Sindia and Amir Khan.
322. Holkar subdued.
323. Extirpation of the Pindaris.

318. Rise of the Pindaris.—While Sir David Ouchterlony was bringing the war in Nepal to a close, the Pindaris made incursions into British territories. The origin of the Pindaris is lost in obscurity. They first come into notice as a low class of freebooters attached to the Mahratta armies during the wars of the eighteenth century. Their object was universal plunder. They were bound to no chief, except to him who for the time held out the highest prospects of rich booty. They were the offscourings of the Hindus and the Muhammadans, and were bound together by only one tie—that of plunder. On the conclusion of peace with the Mahrattas, they continued their ravages under two notorious leaders named Chitu and Kharim Khan. At one time we read of them making raids into the territories of Holkar

and Sindia, and again entering the Deccan and plundering the territories of the Nizam and the Raja of Nagpur. They generally invaded a country in bands of from one to four thousand, and when they crossed the frontier, they divided off into small parties of two or three hundred. They advanced with such rapidity that their entrance into and plunder of a village were the first news the unfortunate villagers had of their approach. They took no tents nor baggage with them. They carried only their arms, and they slept on their saddle cloths. Both men and horses were accustomed to make long marches. They never halted except to refresh themselves, or to plunder or commit the vilest atrocities on women. They lived on the grain they obtained in passing through the country. All that they found of value in the villages they either carried off with them or destroyed. On Lord Hastings' arrival in India in 1813, there were no fewer than fifty thousand of those Pindari robbers living by plunder in Central India.

319. Hastings resolves to extirpate the Pindaris.— In 1815 twenty-five thousand of those Pindaris entered the Madras Presidency and destroyed over three hundred villages on the Coromandel coast. Another band swept the Nizam's kingdom, while a third entered Malabar. Other Pindari raids on English territory followed in 1816-17. Lord Hastings saw that there never could be peace or security in India till this predatory people should be extinguished. To lead an army against them in the hope of engaging them in a regular battle was not to be thought of. To utterly crush this people they must be surrounded and hemmed in, so that they could have no means of escape. The Mahratta powers were known to look with a kindly eye on the Pindaris. Lord Hastings made preparation, therefore, not only to extirpate the Pindaris, but also to settle those Mahratta powers.

320. **Plan of the campaign.**—Lord Hastings called together the armies of the three Presidencies, in all about one hundred and twenty thousand strong, by far the largest army the English had ever put into the field. General Hislop, with the Madras army, was to cross the Narbada and drive the Pindaris north towards the Chambal, where the Governor-General himself, at the head of the Bengal army, would be waiting to receive them.

321. **Peace with Sindia and Amir Khan.**—Meanwhile the relations between the English and Sindia, Holkar and Amir Khan must be settled. They were all known to be well disposed towards the Pindaris, and they harboured them in their territories. Sindia, especially, was secretly intriguing with the Peshwa and the Nepal Ministry to form a combination against the English. His correspondence with Nepal was intercepted and presented to him in open Durbar. Sindia was thus forced to enter into a treaty, by which he pledged himself to assist the English against the Pindaris, and to prevent any new gangs being formed in his territory. The territory of Ajmir was ceded to the English so as to strengthen their influence in Rajputana. Negotiations were next opened with Amir Khan, who agreed to disband his army, to sell his guns to the English, to prevent any predatory gangs from being formed in his territory, and to oppose the Pindaris. In return he was confirmed in the jaghirs he had received from Holkar. He became a feudatory prince, the founder of a Muhammadan dynasty, which is still represented by the Nawab of Tonk in Rajputana.

322. **Holkar subdued.**—Holkar's territories were in a different condition. Jaswant Rao had gone mad, and after his death, Tulsa Bai, the queen-mother, who acted as regent for the young prince, Mulhar Rao Holkar, was

at the mercy of the army. The military leaders resolved to wage war against the English and advanced to Mahidpur. Tulsa Bai was with the army and was anxious to make friends with the English, who, under Sir Thomas Hislop, had moved up to give battle. Her troops, infuriated at her, carried her to the banks of the river, cut off her head and cast her mutilated body into the stream. Sir John Malcolm led the English army to the attack. Holkar's artillery did great execution; but the sepoys, notwithstanding the heavy fire, continued steadily to advance. The batteries were taken. Holkar's infantry fled, and the cavalry, who had remained inactive, galloped off the field. The entire camp, with sixty-three guns and a large quantity of ammunition, fell into the hands of the victors. Holkar was glad to sue for peace.

1818 A.D. (1) Certain territories were ceded to the English. (2) The grants already made to Amir Khan were confirmed. (3) Holkar's state was made a subsidiary state under British protection. (4) In other respects the young Mulhar Rao Holkar was treated as an independent prince, subject to the advice of a British Resident. This is known as the Treaty of Mandeswar.

323. **Extirpation of the Pindaris.**—The position of the Pindaris was now desperate. They had expected the Mahrattas to help them; but now no Mahratta would dare to give them even a place of shelter for their families. Kharim and Chitu had still twenty-three thousand men between them, but what was such a force as this against the armies with which they were surrounded? In whatever direction they turned they were met by the English forces. Defeat followed defeat. One gang made their escape to the south leaving all their baggage behind them. Many fled to the jungles and perished miserably. Others sought refuge in the villages, and the villagers, mindful of the sufferings they had inflicted on them, killed them

without mercy. Kharim surrendered, and received a small state beyond the Ganges in Gorakpur. Chitu was hunted by Sir John Malcolm from place to place, till, without a follower left, he plunged into the jungle near Asirgarh and was devoured by a tiger. The fort of Asirgarh was taken by General Doveton. Those of the Pindaris who survived, mingled with the population, and within a very few years no trace of their once dreadful gangs was to be found. 1819 A.D.

CHAPTER V.

THE MARQUIS OF HASTINGS: THE FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR.

1813 A.D. TO 1823 A.D.

324. Baji Rao.
325. Trimbakji Dainglia.
326. Battle of Kharki.
327. Nagpur annexed.
328. The Peshwa deposed.
329. Results of the war.

324. Baji Rao.—Ever since the treaty of Basin (1802) Baji Rao, the Peshwa, had maintained an English subsidiary force at Puna. He had no love for the English and would gladly have dispensed with this force. But to maintain it was to him a necessary evil; for, without it, he had no security of maintaining his position against the other Mahratta leaders. For ten years he oppressed all the smaller chiefs that had taken up arms against his house, and by extortion and miserliness amassed a fortune of five crores of rupees.

325. Trimbakji Dainglia. — About 1813 Trimbakji Dainglia rose to notice at this court. He was originally a spy; but, by his ability, and by pandering to the Peshwa's vices, he gained a complete ascendancy over his mind. He hated the English with the intensest animosity, and

induced Baji Rao to intrigue with Sindia and Holkar to overthrow the English and to reunite the Mahrattas under the Peshwa's authority. He next turned to Gujarat. There was a dispute between the Peshwa and the Gaikwar as to the possession of Ahmadabad. Gangadhar Sastri, the Gaikwar's Prime Minister, under the guarantee of English protection, was sent to Puna to settle the dispute. At the instigation of Trimbakji, the Sastri was murdered when leaving the sacred shrine of Pandharpur. The murder of such a distinguished Brahman under such circumstances produced the greatest excitement. Mountstuart Elphinstone, the British Resident, demanded the surrender of Trimbakji, and he was sent as a prisoner to the fort of Thana on the island of Salsette. Within a year he made his escape. A fellow-countryman took service as a horsekeeper under one of the English officers in the fort, and, as he led his master's horse up and down under the window of Trimbakji's cell, he sang a Mahratta song telling him how he might gain his freedom. Trimbakji got over the walls, was joined by a company of horsemen that were waiting for him, and fled for refuge to the *Bhils* in Khandesh. Large sums of money were secretly sent to him by the Peshwa, and he used it in raising forces to act against the English. Elphinstone remonstrated, and finally forced Baji Rao to sign a treaty at Puna, compelling him to cede Ahmadnagar and other territory, to deliver up Trimbakji, and to hold no communication with any power but the English.

326. **Battle of Kharki.**—But Baji Rao had no intention of abiding by the Treaty of Puna. He set out ostensibly on a pilgrimage to various shrines, and returned to Puna with an enormous number of cavalry in his pay. He began to repair his fortresses and to strengthen his garrisons. Elphinstone was not deceived as to Baji Rao's hostile intentions, but as he did not

wish to hasten a rupture, he prepared very cautiously for his defence. He removed the British forces, which consisted of two thousand sepoys and eight hundred Europeans, from Puna to Kharki, a village four miles distant. He himself followed. That very day the Mahrattas under Baji Rao and his Commander-in-Chief, Bapu Gokla, attacked the British force at Kharki. Though the Mahratta army numbered eighteen thousand horse and eight thousand foot, with fourteen pieces of artillery, they were easily defeated. The same night the Residency was burned. A force under General Smith was, meanwhile, on its way back to Puna, and on its approach Baji Rao lost heart and fled.

327. Nagpur annexed.—Meanwhile, the Raja of Nagpur had been secretly intriguing with the Peshwa. Raghuji Bhonsle died in 1816. Appa Sahib was appointed regent and finally became Raja. To secure the aid of the English he entered into a subsidiary treaty. Notwithstanding this, he secretly took part in the conspiracy to overthrow the English. With true Mahratta cunning he went to Mr. Jenkins when he heard of the Residency at Puna having been burned, and denounced Baji Rao's ingratitude; while at the same time he himself was plotting to act similarly against Mr. Jenkins. He secretly accepted the honorary title of commander of the Peshwa's army, and on the 25th November he prepared to attack the Residency at Nagpur. The Residency was situated on the Sitabaldi Hills. There were no European troops there as there had been at Kharki. The sepoys, however, fought with the greatest bravery; and the Bengal cavalry under Captain Fitzgerald charged the enemy with such gallantry that they fled before them. Another army of Mahrattas had, meanwhile, been defeated at Jubbulpur. Appa Sahib was arrested and

1817 A.D.

sent to Allahabad; but on the way he made his escape, and for many years he was a fugitive in the Vindhya and Satpura mountains. He finally found refuge in Jodhpur. A grandson of Raghuji was placed on the throne, and on his dying without issue in 1853, Nagpur was annexed to the British possessions.

328. **The Peshwa deposed.**—The Peshwa had still about thirty thousand men with him. With these he fell on a detachment of sepoys under Captain Staunton at Koregam. The sepoys were wearied with a long night's march, and they could obtain neither food nor water. Their only hope of safety was in giving battle. During the whole day the battle raged, Staunton and Dr. Wyllie led on the men with the greatest bravery. At nightfall the spirit of the enemy was broken. Next day they refused to renew the battle and disappeared. Baji Rao fled to the Carnatic. Satara was taken (10th February 1818). A proclamation was issued, declaring that Baji Rao and his family were excluded from all share in the Government; Baji Rao at last surrendered. A pension of eight lakhs of rupees per annum was granted to him. Bithaur, near Cawnpur, was given him as a residence. He died in January 1851. Trimbakji was captured and retained as a prisoner in Chunar till his death. After the surrender of Baji Rao, the Raja of Satara was restored and seated on the throne by the British authority. He immediately issued a proclamation giving over the government to the British Resident. All the Mahratta country was soon thereafter subdued.

1818 A.D.

329. **Results of the war.**—The policy of the Marquis of Hastings was not altogether approved of in England. But the results have shown the wisdom of it. The centre of India, which for half a century had been a scene of

anarchy and rapine and bloodshed, was now restored to peace and order. Villages that had been plundered and destroyed were restored, and fertile fields that had been made a desert soon waved with golden corn. Lord Hastings returned to England in 1823. He will always be remembered as the Governor-General that carried out the Marquis of Wellesley's policy to its legitimate conclusion, and firmly established the British Government as the Paramount Power in India.

CHAPTER VI.

LORD AMHERST: THE FIRST BURMESE WAR.

1823 A.D. TO 1828 A.D.

330. Growth of the kingdom of Burma.
331. Origin of the Burmese war.
332. Capture of Donabu, Prome and Pagahn by the English.
333. Peace of Yendabu.
334. Sepoy Mutiny.
335. Political importance of th Burmese war.
336. Difficulties at Bhartpur.
337. Capture of Bhartpur.

330. Growth of the kingdom of Burma.—Lord Amherst, who succeeded the Marquis of Hastings, had scarcely assumed the reins of government when he found himself involved in a discussion with the Court of Ava. About 1735 Alompra, an adventurer from Pegu, had founded a dynasty at Ava. Since then the Government of Ava had been going on steadily adding to its territories. In 1787 it had annexed the independent state of Arakan, and treated the inhabitants so cruelly that thousands fled for protection to British territory. The Government of Ava demanded that these fugitives should be surrendered. Successive Governors-General had refused to do so. In order to avoid a war if possible, they had sent several missions to the Burmese court, but the

missions had been interpreted by the Burmese as a sign of fear. Each successive mission had been treated with more indignity than its predecessor, and the language of the court had become more and more insolent. In 1822 Maha Bandula, a great Burmese national hero, overran and annexed Assam and entered Cachar. This, together with the uniform success of their arms during the previous fifty years, so puffed up the Burmese with pride that from the king to the beggar the whole community was anxious to go to war with England, of whose power they knew absolutely nothing.

331. Origin of the Burmese war.—The Burmese were not long in giving effect to this determination. They claimed the island of Shahpuri in the district of Chittagong, which had always been considered as belonging to the Company, and sent a thousand men who took possession of the island. Moreover, Maha Bandula was sent into Arakan to drive the English out of Bengal and to bring the Governor-General to Ava, bound in golden chains, which he took with him for the purpose. Lord Amherst, anxious to avoid war, addressed a letter to the King. In reply, the Governor-General was informed that no further communication should be sent to the "Golden feet," but that he might send a *petition* to Maha Bandula. In February 1824 a British force was sent into Assam, and the Court of Ava was informed that severe punishment would follow any further neglect of English demands for redress. The answer of the Burmese was an attack on the British troops in Chittagong. Lord Amherst's government resolved on energetic action, and since the land frontier of Burma was defended by mountains and impenetrable jungles, an expedition by sea was decided on. A great difficulty now presented itself. The Bengal sepoys could not be sent over seas, and therefore it was necessary

to obtain troops from Madras. Sir Thomas Munro was Governor of Madras, and he was only informed in February 1824 that his troops would be required. He was, however, one of the greatest of Indian administrators and did his work so well that in April a fleet and army from Madras under Sir Archibald Campbell met the Bengal contingent at the Andamans and sailed to Rangoon. At the first discharge of the British guns the Burmese soldiers took to flight, and the inhabitants of Rangoon retired to the jungles, taking with them their flocks and herds and stores of grain, so that when the British troops landed they found the town deserted. A fatal defect in the arrangement of the expedition now showed itself. The rain began and the Irrawaddy was soon a rushing torrent against which the sailing ships could not make way. The troops therefore had to stay in Rangoon, a prey to the unhealthy climate and badly supplied with necessaries. Meanwhile Maha Bandula defeated a British force at Ramu in Chittagong, and was then ordered to attack the British at Rangoon. He entirely surrounded them with stockades and shelter pits for his own men. For a fortnight this brave leader fought against the British army. But the cold weather having come the health of the troops had improved and reinforcements had been received. At length Sir Archibald Campbell ordered Bandula's stockades to be stormed. The Burmese could not resist the British onslaught and retreated. They formed another intrenched position at Donabu.

332. Capture of Donabu, Prome and Pagahn by the English.—Early in 1825 the British force advanced up the river. On their arrival before Donabu a few shells were fired. Next day the heavy guns were brought into position and began to play upon the Burmese camp. But there was no response. Bandula had been killed by one of the shells the night before. The courage of the troops

failed them and they were gone. Prome fell without a blow. At Pagahn a Burmese army of eighteen thousand strong was put to flight by two thousand British troops. The success of the foreigners struck terror into the people. The Burmese began to look upon them as demons that were invincible. Stories were spread abroad
1826 A.D. that the English fought in spite of ghastly wounds, and that they had doctors, who picked up arms and legs after the battle, and replaced them on their rightful owners.

333. Peace of Yendabu.—The king was forced to sue for peace. At Yendabu a treaty was signed
1826 A.D. by which the King of Ava agreed to cede Assam, Arakan and Tennaserim to the Company, to pay a crore of rupees towards the expenses of the war, and to receive a British Minister at his court.

334. Sepoy Mutiny.—A disgraceful mutiny of sepoys broke out at Barrackpur in connection with this war, the 47th N.I. resenting the hardships which it entailed. The mutineers were quickly surrounded, and on their refusing to march were fired on and sabred by the European troops. Many were killed on the spot, and several of the ringleaders were afterwards tried and executed.

335. Political importance of the Burmese war.—The first Burmese war was not in itself an event that could cause any alarm to the English Government. But the various states in India had not yet had time to settle quietly down under the new government under which they had been placed by Lord Hastings. There were still many Mahrattas, Jats, Pindaris and Rajputs, who would be ready at any signal to join a powerful leader, if any prospect of final success presented itself. The

course of events in Burma was therefore watched by the natives with the greatest interest, and the news of the defeat at Ramu was known in the bazaars before it reached the Council Chamber.

336. **Difficulties at Bhartpur.**—Suddenly a difficulty arose in the Jat State of Bhartpur, which had been under British protection since the time of Lord Wellesley. The Raja died in 1825 leaving a son named Bulwant Singh. He was only seven years of age and his uncle was appointed to act as regent. But a cousin of the boy-raja, having gained over the army, put the regent to death, cast the little prince into prison and ascended the throne. Sir David Ouchterlony was the British Resident at Delhi. He at once recognised what a dangerous effect this would have on the whole of India if not at once put down, and ordered a British force to advance against the usurper and support the rights of the infant prince. Lord Amherst, however, countermanded the advance. Sir David Ouchterlony thereupon resigned and died some two months after.

337. **Capture of Bhartpur.**—The result of Lord Amherst's action was to give courage and boldness to the usurper, who now declared he would hold Bhartpur in defiance of the Governor-General. Jats, Pindaris and others flocked to his standard. Lord Amherst saw the mistake he had made, and the Council at Calcutta was unanimous for war. To engage in an attack on Bhartpur was an important affair. The city had successfully withstood the attacks of the English before and was looked upon as impregnable. Were the English to fail again to take it their power might be shaken in India, but should it fall before them, their power would be more firmly established than ever. An army under Lord Combermere advanced to Bhartpur. The heavy

1826 A.D.

artillery made little impression on the mud walls, and the commander resolved to mine them. Ten thousand pounds of powder were put into the mine. The train was fired, a terrific explosion was heard, and vast masses of hardened clay and rock were sent flying into the air. The British force rushed into the breach and bayonetted the defenders. The fortress that had withstood Lord Lake was captured. The usurper was imprisoned and the young raja re-established on the throne.

CHAPTER VII.

LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK: SOCIAL REFORMS.

338. Lord William Bentinck.
339. Coorg annexed.
340. Mysore under English administration.
341. Reforms.
342. Changes in the Company's Charter.
343. Treaty with Ranjit Singh.

338. Lord William Bentinck.—Lord William Bentinck was the next Governor-General. Twenty-two years before he had been Governor of Madras, and had been recalled because he had sanctioned the changes in the army regulations that led to the Vellore mutiny. His administration was not rendered famous by any great war; but the social and judicial reforms that he introduced mark the seven years of his rule as one of the brightest periods in the history of India.

339. Coorg annexed.—Both Coorg and Mysore were being shamefully misgoverned, and Lord William Bentinck was forced to interfere. The Raja of Coorg was mad and was inflicting the most cruel barbarities on his subjects. The English deposed the Raja, sent him as a prisoner to Benares, and, "in consideration of the unanimous wish of the people," annexed the territory.

340. **Mysore under English administration.**—On the downfall of Tippu, a child of the former dynasty was placed on the throne of Mysore. During his minority the country was well governed by an able minister, named Purnia. But the young Raja, when only sixteen years of age, took the government into his own hands, quickly squandered his treasures, and, when the treasury was empty, oppressed his subjects. In 1830 the people revolted. The English Government sent a force to put down the rebellion, and, when peace was restored, took the management of the country into their own hands, giving the Raja a handsome pension. In 1881 the adopted son of the Raja was restored to the ancient throne of Mysore.

341. **Reforms.**—During the peaceful reign of Lord William Bentinck the judicial courts were reformed; the vernacular languages were substituted for Persian in all civil and criminal courts; the extra allowances given to the army, when on service, were abolished; the village revenue system was introduced into the North-West Provinces; natives were much more largely employed in the public service. The study of English was introduced into all Government schools; and the most active measures were taken to suppress the Thugs. Lord William Bentinck also laboured to establish steam communication between England and India by way of the Red Sea. But of all the reforms with which his name is associated, that by which he will be best remembered, and for which a grateful posterity will ever thank him, was the abolition of *Sati*.

342. **Changes in the Company's Charter.**—In 1833 the Company's Charter was renewed. From that time the Company ceased to be a trading corporation, and became a ruling body. The monopoly of trade with

China was consequently abolished, and liberty was given to Europeans to reside and trade and acquire property in India.

343. **Treaty with Ranjit Singh.**—We have seen how the Government of India became afraid lest the French should invade India by marching an army through Persia and Afghanistan, and how embassies were sent to Teheran and Kabul to enter into defensive treaties with those Courts. Lord William Bentinck's government thought that India was in danger from another power—Russia. The Czar had been adding considerably to his territories in Central Asia and the frontiers of the Russian dominions were therefore coming nearer to those of India. Moreover, it was credibly believed that the Russians were intriguing with the Afghans against the English. It was desirable, therefore, to be on friendly terms with the chiefs in the Panjab and the north-west of India, so that if there were a Russian war they might be on the side of the English. Lord William Bentinck accordingly set out for the Satlej in the greatest state, and had a meeting there with Ranjit Singh, which led to a treaty being made with him as also with the Amirs of Sind. In May 1835 Lord William Bentinck left India.

1833 A.D.

Sir Charles Napier

CHAPTER VIII.

1842 *LORD AUCKLAND: THE FIRST AFGHAN WAR.* 8

344. Affairs in Afghanistan.
345. Russian intrigues.
346. Reasons for the Afghan expedition.
347. The English advance.
348. Kabul taken.
349. Dost Muhammad surrenders.
350. Sir R. Sale at Jalálabad.
351. Insurrection at Kabul.
352. The English in difficulties.
353. Murder of Sir W. Mac-Naghten.
354. Retreat and massacre of the English.
355. First Chinese war.

344. Affairs in Afghanistan.—The kingdom of Kabul under Ahmad Shah Abdalli or Durrani rose to be one of the most powerful in Asia. It included the greater part of Afghanistan, Kashmir, Balk, Herat, and Sind, and contained a population of fourteen millions. In 1808 the country was ruled by Shah Shuja-ul-mulk, but soon after this time he was driven from his throne by his brother Mahmud. Mahmud in turn was murdered by the Barakzai tribe of Afghans, to whom he owed his elevation. The country was thereupon divided. Kabul and Ghazni fell to the lot of Dost Muhammad, one of the Barakzai chieftains. Shah Shuja fled and lived in exile under British protection at Ludhiana. In 1834 he made an attempt to recover his throne, but was defeated by Dost Muhammad, and returned to Ludhiana.

345. Russian intrigues.—Two years after this the Shah of Persia, at the instigation of Russia, advanced against Herat with an army forty thousand strong, including Russian officers and troops. The Heratis, under an English officer named Eldred Pottinger, gallantly defended the town, and in the following year the Persians were forced to retreat with disgrace to their own territories. Nor did the Russians intrigue with the Persians alone.

Their agents were sent to Kabul to influence Dost Muhammad against Mr. (afterwards Sir Alexander) Burnes, who had been sent thither by the Governor-General to secure Dost Muhammad's friendship. One great difficulty in the way of this was the enmity between Dost Muhammad and the British ally, Ranjit Singh. Whether from this cause or because Dost Muhammad thought that Russian support would be more valuable than English, Burnes failed.

346. **Reasons for the Afghan expedition.**—The situation of affairs in Afghanistan now seemed to Lord Auckland to be very serious. With Afghanistan and Persia united in a confederacy supported by Russia, the north-west of India would be liable to invasion at any moment. To preserve peace in India, it was necessary that Afghanistan should be friendly to the English. Shah Shuja was believed to have a larger number of supporters in Afghanistan than Dost Muhammad, and he was also on good terms with Ranjit Singh. It was therefore resolved to replace Shah Shuja on the throne.

1838 A.D. A tripartite treaty was entered into between him, Ranjit Singh, and the English. "The army of the Indus" was at once formed under the command of Sir John Kean and set out for Afghanistan, taking Mr. MacNaghten with them as British envoy at the court of Shah Shuja.

347. **The English advance.**—After meeting with a slight resistance from the Amirs of Sind, on account of which Karachi was taken, the army proceeded under many difficulties through the Bolan Pass to Kandahar, which they reached in May 1839. Shah Shuja was at once proclaimed king. But it was observed that very few of the Afghan chiefs attended the ceremonies,—a certain indication that Shah Shuja's cause was not so popular in-

Afghanistan as the British had been led to believe. While the troops were resting at Kandahar, the news reached them of the death of Ranjit Singh, by which both Shah Shuja and the English lost a valuable friend.

348. **Kabul taken.**—The British army pushed on to Ghazni and captured it. On the 7th August, Kabul was reached; and, as Dost Muhammad had fled to Bhokara, the British army occupied the town without resistance. Within a few weeks the army was strengthened by a division that had advanced through the Khaibar Pass, capturing Ali Masjid and Jalalabad on its way. The object of the campaign had now apparently been accomplished. Shah Shuja was again supreme in Kabul. The English had no desire for conquest. A great part of the army was, therefore, ordered back to India, a small force being left under General Sale and General Nott to garrison the country. Liberal rewards were bestowed by the British Government on the conquerors. Lord Auckland was made Earl of Auckland; Sir John Kean, Lord Kean of Ghazni; while Mr. MacNaghten and Colonel Henry Pottinger were made Baronets.

1839 A.D.

349. **Dost Muhammad surrenders.**—That portion of the army that was sent back to India attacked Kelat on their way, and many severe encounters took place before the country was reduced to a state of quiet. The last encounter was at Parwan, in the Panjshu valley, near the Gorband pass, where General Sale gained a complete victory. Dost Muhammad then presented himself at the English camp with only one attendant, and surrendered. He was sent to Ludhiana and allowed a pension of two lakhs a year. For some time the Afghans appeared to be satisfied with British occupation. Large sums of money were

1840 A.D.

distributed amongst the chiefs, and so long as money was forthcoming there was no want of loyalty to the British and Shah Shuja. But the British could not be doling out money for ever, and, as the contributions diminished, the loyalty of the Afghans waned. The order and regularity of British administration did not suit their wild and lawless natures. They began to get tired of British rule: to get tired of their nominal sovereign, Shah Shuja. Conspiracies were formed; outbreaks took place; the Khiljis and others occupying the passes, being no longer kept friendly by bribes, gave the utmost trouble. Notwithstanding all this, the Europeans at Kabul seemed to have no anxiety as to their own safety. On the other hand, the officers brought up their wives and families from the plains of India that they might enjoy the cool climate of Kabul.

350. **Sir Robert Sale at Jalalabad.**—The Afghans became more and more disaffected. In October the Khilji chiefs revolted. Sir Robert Sale left Kabul to put down the rebellion and re-open communications with Jalalabad. After a long struggle he forced his way through the passes and reached Jalalabad, but found the place so weak that he had at once to throw up defence works. The gallant way in which Sir Robert Sale defended himself in this town, when again and again assailed by overwhelming numbers, was one of the most heroic events of the war, and gained for the defenders the name of "The illustrious garrison."

1841 A.D.

351. **Insurrection at Kabul.**—Meanwhile sad events were taking place at Kabul. The English forces, at the request of Shah Shuja, had removed from a strong fortress named the Bala Hissar, where they might have been able to hold out against any rebellion, to cantonments quite unprotected three miles from the city. Sir Alexander

Burnes and other officers lived in the centre of the city. On the 2nd November there was an uproar in the streets of Kabul. Sir Alexander Burnes and the other English officers were besieged in their houses. They sent to the cantonments for a battalion of infantry and two guns. But General Elphinston, an old man, who had succeeded to the command, delayed. He was afraid to offend Shah Shuja. From eight o'clock in the morning till two in the afternoon Sir Alexander Burnes and thirty-two others maintained their defence. But still no aid was sent to them. The mob at length forced their way, and twenty-three persons, including Burnes, fell victims to their fury. This insurrection in the city, which might easily have been suppressed when it first broke out, spread over the country, and the whole Afghan nation was soon up in arms against the English.

352. The English in difficulties.—Brigadier Shelton, with a detachment, occupied the Bala Hissar. The British force was five thousand five hundred strong. Had such a force been led under an able General against the enemy, most probably they would have been rewarded with a victory. But in the British camp there was divided council. Shelton recommended a retreat to Jalalabad. Sir William MacNaghten urged that the army should remain at Kabul; and General Elphinston did nothing. Meanwhile the Afghan tribes were hurrying from all directions to Kabul, and hemming in the British on all sides. Akbar Khan, the eldest son of Dost Muhammad, put himself at the head of the Afghans. First one fort was taken and then another. Shelton left the Bala Hissar and joined the main body. Provisions were running short. There was but one road by which supplies could now be brought, and the Afghans occupied the village of Bemauru through which this road lay. It was necessary for the safety of the army that this village should be

taken. Shelton was sent out with a considerable force to storm it. But the soldiers had become completely demoralized. They fled before the Afghans and rushed back to the cantonments in the utmost disorder.

353. Murder of Sir William MacNaghten.—The British army was daily pressed closer and closer. Provisions could not be obtained. Famine must follow. Sir William MacNaghten entered into negotiations with Akbar Khan. Arrangements were made for an interview, which was to take place in an open space near the cantonments. On the 23rd December Sir William MacNaghten advanced thither, accompanied by three other officers. Suddenly they were surrounded. MacNaghten was shot by Akbar Khan. His body was hacked to pieces and his head carried away and exposed in the bazaar of Kabul. Of the three officers, one was killed on the spot, the other two were made prisoners. Such base treachery would have stirred up the indignation of most armies and raised from every lip a cry for vengeance; but with this army and its leaders it was otherwise. They would still put faith in Afghan promises; they would surrender their guns and treasure to the murderers; they would hand over hostages to their care and retire to India, trusting to Akbar Khan and his associates to supply them with all things necessary on the journey.

354. Retreat and massacre of the English.—On the 6th January the British forces commenced their retreat from Kabul, leaving Shah Shuja behind them. They still numbered four thousand five hundred fighting men, with about twelve thousand camp-followers.

1842 A.D. It was the middle of winter and snow was falling. They issued from their cantonments in the most disorderly way. At two o'clock next morning the last of this straggling mass reached their

first place of encampment, only five miles distant from the cantonments. The cold was severe, and many died during the night. Next day they proceeded on their way. Then commenced a series of treacheries such as are perhaps unparalleled in history. As the retreating multitude marched through the passes, the Khiljis manned the heights and poured on them a destructive fire. In the terrible Kurd Kabul pass as many as three thousand perished. Akbar Khan followed in the rear breaking every promise he had made. More hostages were demanded by him; more hostages were given. The wives of the officers, amongst whom were Lady Sale and Lady MacNaghten, were handed over to Akbar Khan as the only chance of saving their lives. General Elphinston himself surrendered. The remainder pressed on. Thousands died from cold and hunger; thousands were shot down by the bullets of the Afghans. Some deserted to the enemy. Of the sixteen thousand five hundred that left Kabul, only one, a surgeon named Brydon, succeeded in reaching Jalalabad and making known the utter annihilation of the army. It is possible that this disaster might have been averted by more firmness and prudence. But the policy which led to it has been shown to have been a mistaken one, and has been reversed. Lord Auckland ought never to have taken up the cause of Shah Shuja who was thoroughly unpopular in Afghanistan, was an old man who had already failed to recover his power, and had been in exile for the greater part of his life.

355. **First Chinese war—1840-1842.**—During Lord Auckland's administration there was a war with China, consequent on outrages that had been offered to some British ships by the Chinese authorities, who were engaged in putting down the smuggling of opium from India into China. An Indian force under Sir Hugh Gough greatly distinguished itself in the war, which

ended in the Chinese surrendering Hong-Kong to the British, and in four ports being opened to British commerce.

CHAPTER IX.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH.

1842 A.D. TO 1844 A.D.

356. Lord Ellenborough.
357. The Afghan war renewed.
358. Anarchy at Kabul.
359. Kabul retaken—End of the war.
360. Annexation of Sind.
361. Troubles in Gwalior.
362. Lord Ellenborough recalled.

356. Lord Ellenborough.—The news of the sad end of the Afghan army had reached Calcutta only a few weeks before Lord Ellenborough arrived there to take the place of Lord Auckland as Governor-General (28th February 1842). The news of the treacherous murder of an envoy and of the utter destruction of an army filled every Englishman in India with shame, and with a desire to wipe out the disgrace that had fallen on the British arms.

357. The Afghan war renewed.—General Sale with his illustrious garrison was still holding out bravely at Jalalabad. An army was assembled at Peshawar to proceed to his relief, and, under General Pollock, they entered the Khaibar pass. Akbar Khan, with the keen eye of a great general, determined if possible to overthrow Sir Robert Sale before General Pollock could come to his aid. With an army of six thousand men he advanced to Jalalabad, closely besieged the town and kept up a continuous fire on the parapets. Sir Robert Sale had one thousand three hundred and sixty infantry, with artillery and cavalry. He resolved to give battle. The garrison

issued from the town. Captain Havelock quickly drove in Akbar's advance guard. The whole army then charged with such impetuosity that Akbar's forces gave way at all points and fled. Their camp and tents were set on fire. Their artillery, which included four guns taken from the Kabul army, fell into the hands of the victors. Meanwhile General Pollock had forced his way through the Khaibar pass, and shortly after the defeat of Akbar joined General Sale at Jalalabad. About the same time, General Knott, who had been gallantly maintaining his position at Kandahar, was re-inforced by General England, who had forced his way through the Bolan pass.

358. **Anarchy at Kabul.**—Meanwhile Kabul was in a state of anarchy. The supporters of Shah Shuja (the *Durranis*) were fighting against the supporters of Dost Muhammad (the *Barakzais*), and Shah Shuja shut himself up in the Bala Hissar. The Barakzais called on Shah Shuja to lead them against the English. He appeared outside his fortress and was immediately shot. At this crisis Akbar Khan arrived at Kabul, and succeeded in uniting the two factions. Shah Shuja's son fled for refuge to the British camp.

359. **Kabul retaken—End of the war.**—About the end of August the British forces at Jalalabad and at Kandahar set out for Kabul. The former had to pass through the Tezeen valley, where so many of their countrymen had perished so miserably eight months before. The remains of their murdered comrades still strewed the ground, and the sight infuriated the soldiers. Akbar Khan came out to meet them. They rushed on his forces and drove them before them, giving them no quarter. On the 15th September they entered Kabul in triumph and the British flag again floated over the Bala Hissar. General Knott soon joined General Pollock.

On his march from Kandahar he utterly destroyed the fortress of Ghazni.

The only anxiety the British now had was as to the fate of the prisoners. But this anxiety was soon allayed. Akbar Khán had meant to send them off to Turkestan to be sold as slaves. They had succeeded in bribing their keepers, who allowed them to escape, and Sir Robert Sale had soon the gratification of leading his wife and daughter and the other unfortunate prisoners back to the British camp.

The fortress of Istaliff, whither a large number of Afghans had fled, was next stormed, and an immense amount of property that had been carried from Kabul was recovered. The great bazaar at Kabul, in which the head of Sir William MacNaghten had been exposed, was blown up by gunpowder as a punishment to the city. Nothing more remained to be done. Vengeance had been taken for the murder of the envoy and the massacre of the soldiers. The honour of the British arms had been vindicated. The folly of the policy of supporting Shah Shuja had been shown by events, and there was no question of renewing it. Dost Muhammad was set at liberty and the Afghans were left free to manage their own affairs in their own way.

360. Annexation of Sind.—Scarcely had the Afghan war been brought to a close when Lord Ellenborough was forced to interfere in Sind. This country had been seized by a tribe of Beluchis and was now divided into three states, in each of which were a number of Amirs, whose methods of government have been compared to those of the Norman barons in England in the time of Stephen. During the early occupation of Afghanistan by the British the Amirs had been friendly, but after the retreat from Kabul they had shown considerable hostility. A Resident had been sent to Haidarabad and a subsidiary force had

been stationed within their territories against their wishes. In 1842 Sir Charles Napier was appointed to the command of the subsidiary troops, and a treaty was concluded between the Amirs and the Commissioner, Major Outram, by which the Amirs agreed to cede a certain amount of territory and to furnish fuel for the English steamers on the Indus. The Amirs had most unwillingly consented to this treaty. The day after the treaty was signed a mob attacked Major Outram's house and he only escaped to Napier's camp with difficulty. Sir Charles Napier made this an excuse for war. He defeated the united armies of the Amirs at Miani. The following month another victory gained at Haidarabad was followed up by the capture of Mirpur and Amarkot (the birth-place of Akbar). The rest of the country was soon subdued. The Amirs were sent as prisoners to Benares and Sind was annexed to the British possessions. Napier himself called the conquest "a humane piece of rascality." The Amirs had given little or no excuse for war, but Sind no doubt benefited by getting better government.

1843 A.D.

361. Troubles in Gwalior.—Daulat Rao Sindia died in 1827. His successor died in 1843, leaving a widow only twelve years of age. She adopted a little boy, a relative of the family, as successor. A dispute arose as to who should be regent. The young Maharani supported the claims of Dada Khasji; but Lord Ellenborough caused a certain Mama Sahib to be appointed chief minister. Within three months the young widow dismissed the nominee of the Governor-General and appointed Dada Khasji to the office. The army of Gwalior was out of all proportion to the necessities of the state, and absorbed nearly two-thirds of the revenue. The soldiers' pay was greatly in arrears and they became insolent and turbulent, and, as the dominant power in the state, might at any time prove dangerous to

the British Government. At the same time disorders had broken out in the Panjab. There were seventy thousand Sikhs in arms there, and they might at any time cross the Satlej. If the armies of Gwalior and the Panjab should unite, Hindustan might be overrun and the British power imperilled. To prevent the possibility of such a contingency it was necessary that peace and order should be restored in Gwalior. An army was got ready under Sir Hugh Gough; and the Governor-General himself set out with it from Agra. It was thought that the mere knowledge that an English army was on its way to Gwalior would be sufficient to induce submission. Whatever the Maharani and her advisers may have wished, however, they could not control the army. The chiefs and soldiers saw that their very existence depended on their defeating the English, and advanced to Maharajpur to give battle. They fought long and well, but were finally defeated with the loss of their guns and ammunition. On the same day another division of the Gwalior force was met at Punniar by an English army under General Grey, and with a similar result. The Maharani was forced to submit. A pension was allowed her. A council of regency was set up which was required to act on the advice of the Resident. The army was reduced to six thousand cavalry and three thousand infantry with thirty-two guns; and territory was ceded for maintaining a contingent, henceforth known as the Gwalior Contingent. Since that time the Maharaja of Gwalior has been a faithful feudatory of the British Government.

1844 A.D.

362. Lord Ellenborough recalled. — Lord Ellenborough was recalled. He had had many differences with the Court of Directors. But the ability and energy he had displayed had raised him high in the estimation of many in India. He had vindicated the honour of his country's

name in Afghanistan; and had suppressed a disorder in Gwalior, which, had it been allowed to continue for another year and the Gwalior army had joined the Sikhs, would have so endangered the empire of India that it could scarcely have been saved without a miracle.

CHAPTER X.

LORD HARDINGE: THE FIRST SIKH WAR.

1844 A.D TO 1847 A.D.

363. The Khalsa.
364. Causes of the First Sikh war.
365. Battle of Firuzshahr.
366. Battle of Sobraon.
367. Peace of Lahor.
368. Reforms.

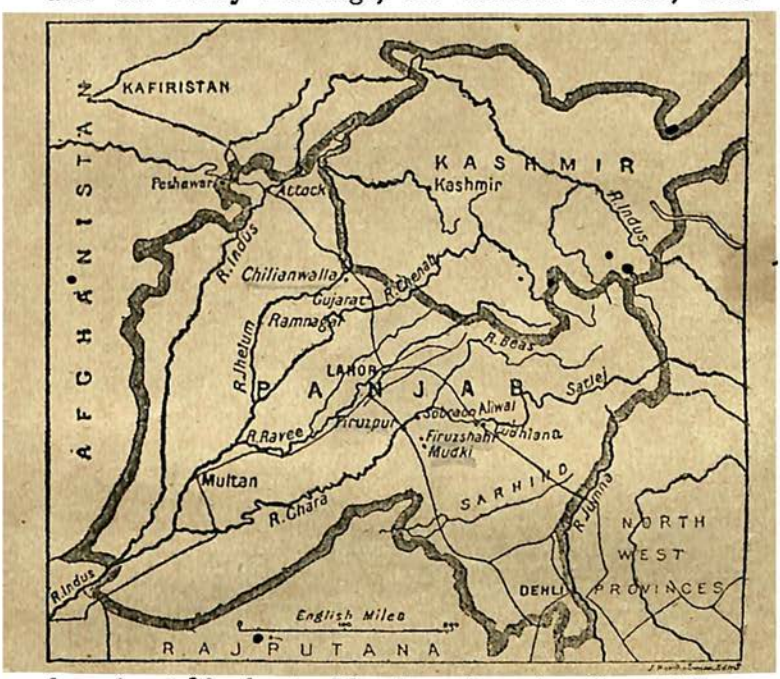
363. The Khalsa.—Ever since the death of Ranjit Singh in 1839 the Panjab had been in a state of utter disorder and anarchy. One murder had followed another in the royal household. At last Dhulip Singh, an infant son of Ranjit Singh, was set up as Raja. The chief Sirdars formed themselves into a council of state, known as the Khalsa, "the saved or liberated," and carried on the whole government of the country. But the army of the Khalsa grew turbulent. They clamoured for an increase of pay and committed the grossest of outrages. The Khalsa had to yield to the troops and the army became the dominant power in the state. The soldiers obeyed their officers; but in every regiment there were *punchayets*, or committees of five, who directed the affairs of the army. Guru Govind had promised that wherever five Sikhs were assembled he would be in the midst of them. Hence these committees of five in each regiment were considered to be directly under the guidance of the invisible Guru, and their united opinion guided the whole action of the army.

364. **Causes of the First Sikh war.**—The regent-mother appointed her own brother and Lal Singh her ministers; but the former offended the Khalsa and was tried and condemned to death by the punchayets. Lal Singh and the regent mother were in a sad way. The soldiers became more and more clamorous for money, and there was no money to give them. To keep them engaged they were sent against Mulraj of Multan, and he was glad to purchase peace at the cost of eighteen lakhs of rupees. This gave Lal Singh and the Maharani only a short respite. The Khalsa army was soon as turbulent as ever. The only way to prevent them sacking and plundering Lahor was to send them across the Satlej to plunder Delhi and Benares. The utmost care was taken to inflame the minds of the soldiers against the British Government, and they met at the tomb of Ranjit Singh to renew their vows of fidelity to the Khalsa and to the furthering its greatness. Tej Singh was appointed to the command of the Khalsa army. On the 11th December they crossed the Satlej, to the number of sixty thousand soldiers, forty thousand armed followers with one hundred and fifty large guns. The Sikh army had been greatly underrated by the British Government. Trained as they were by European officers, and bound together in a common religious brotherhood, they were capable of presenting an opposition such as no other native army had ever shown. But while the soldiers in the army were eager to overcome the British, Lal Singh and Tej Singh were not. They wished to see the Sikh army crippled, for, until it was crippled, they themselves could never hope to obtain the power at Lahor they desired. Their treachery throughout the war which followed saved Hindustan.

1845 A.D.

365. **Battle of Firuzshahr.**—When the Sikhs crossed the Satlej, Sir John Littler was at Firuzpur with ten

thousand troops and thirty-one guns. The Sikhs might easily have surrounded him and annihilated his force; but, for some unexplained reason, instead of doing this, their army was divided into two parts, and Lal Singh with thirty thousand men and forty guns advanced to Mudki. Meanwhile Sir Hugh Gough, the Commander-in-Chief, and Sir Henry Hardinge, the Governor-General, were



hurrying to the front with a large force to relieve Littler. Sir Hugh Gough came up with Lal Singh at Mudki and gained a doubtful victory. Next day Sir Henry Hardinge joined the army, and placed himself under Sir Hugh Gough as second in command. The Sikhs had retired to Firuzshahr and were strongly entrenching themselves there. Sir Hugh Gough resolved to attack them. Leaving

the sick and wounded at Mudki, he set out for Firuzshahr without luggage or camp equipage. On the 21st December he arrived in front of the Sikh entrenchments, and was strengthened by a force of five thousand five hundred men with twenty-two guns, which Littler had succeeded in bringing from Firuzpur.

1845 A.D.

In the afternoon the attack was made. The British were ordered to charge right up to the muzzle of the cannon and carry the batteries at the point of the bayonet. The fire of the Sikhs was overwhelming, and mowed down the assailants as they advanced. British "guns were dismounted and the ammunition was blown into the air: squadrons were checked in mid career; battalion after battalion was hurled back with shattered ranks, and it was not till after sunset that portions of the enemy's positions were finally carried." Darkness and the obstinacy of the contest threw the English into confusion; and men of all regiments and arms were mixed together. During the early part of the night, which has been well described as a "night of horrors," the Sikhs kept up a murderous fire. At midnight the Governor-General led a division of the army against one of their heavy guns, which he succeeded in spiking. The morrow was looked forward to with the greatest anxiety. But, unknown to the British, there were bitter quarrels and many desertions in the Sikh camp during the night, and the treasury of Lal Singh was plundered by the soldiers. Next morning when Sir Hugh Gough led his men to the attack, he met with a comparatively feeble resistance. The army that had defended their position the day before, with a courage worthy of a Roman legion, were now, on account of the cowardice if not treachery of their commander, seen flying with all speed to the Satlej. The British were thus victorious; but the victory had been gained at a tremendous cost. As many as two thousand four hundred and fifteen of their army lay dead on the field, and of those one hundred and three

were officers. Sir Hugh Gough was unable to follow up his victory. In the two battles of Mudki, and Firuzshahr, he had lost one-fifth of his men and had exhausted his ammunition. He was compelled, therefore, to wait for reinforcements and supplies. This delay on the part of the British gave the Sikhs time to gather their scattered forces. Within a month they again crossed the Satlej under Golab Singh of Jammu, who had been summoned to supersede Lal Singh. Sir Harry Smith was sent against him with a small force, but at Baddiwal he was outflanked, and the greater part of his baggage fell into the hands of the Sikhs. This partial success gave confidence to the Sikhs. Their army was soon strengthened by an additional four thousand men. At Aliwal they awaited the advance of Sir Harry Smith, whose force had been increased to eleven thousand men. The Khalsa army fought with unflinching courage; but in the end they were forced to flee leaving sixty-seven guns behind them. Many found a watery grave in trying to cross the Satlej.

366. Battle of Sobraon.—Sir Harry Smith joined Sir Hugh Gough, and the latter resolved to cross the Satlej and take possession of the Panjab. The Khalsa army had thrown up a series of the strongest defence works at Sobraon. They consisted of semi-circular entrenchments with the river for their base, and were surrounded by a deep ditch; while, on the opposite side of the river, was another encampment, with heavy guns so placed as to sweep the left bank. The two encampments were connected by a bridge of boats. The British army advanced to the attack. They brought with them their heavy guns, to pour in a continuous fire of shot and shell, after which they were to carry the entrenchments by storm. The Sikhs were prepared to conquer or die for their Khalsa. No wonder then that Sobraon proved to be one of the hardest-fought battles in the history of British India.

Early in the morning of the 10th February a dense fog overhung the battlefield. At eleven o'clock the fog rolled up like a curtain, and the great guns opened fire on the entrenchments. For two hours those heavy guns played on the Sikh encampment but with little effect. Sir Hugh Gough, thereupon, gave orders to charge. Again and again were the British forces rolled back under the murderous fire of the Sikhs. Again and again did they advance to the attack. At length the Sikh entrenchment was pierced in three places. The traitorous Tej Singh fled across the bridge, and then the bridge was broken. Sham Singh, a veteran, resolved not to outlive a defeat. Clothing himself in white garments, he called on the troops to fight for their Guru, and, rushing at their head against the British bayonets, met the death he had coveted. The Sikhs, pressed on three sides, were driven into a confused mass. But they contested every inch of ground, and, finally, as the bridge had been broken, they preferred to plunge into the river to surrendering to the victors. There had been no such carnage in India since the battle of Panipat. The Sikh loss was estimated at eight thousand men. The English lost two thousand three hundred and eighty-three men. But a complete victory had been gained.

367. Peace of Lahor.—Three days later the British army crossed the Satlej and advanced to Lahor. There the Governor-General dictated his own terms of peace, which, under the circumstances, were exceedingly moderate. The terms were: (1) The Jalandhar Doab and Kashmir were to be ceded to the British; (2) Dhulip Singh was acknowledged Raja of Lahor with a council of regency, who in all matters were to be directed and controlled by an English Resident; (3) the Sikhs were to pay the expenses of the war; (4) a British force was to be stationed at Lahor to support the new

Government. As the Government was unable to fulfil the third stipulation of the peace, the province of Kashmir was handed over to Golab Singh of Jammu for one crore of rupees. Henry Lawrence was appointed first British Resident at Lahor. Rewards were liberally bestowed on the army, and a present of one year's batta was given to every soldier. Sir Henry Hardinge was created Viscount Hardinge, and Sir Hugh Gough, Lord Gough.

368. **Reforms.**—For two or three years after this war there was peace in India, and Lord Hardinge applied himself with heart and will to the advancement of the good of the country. He gave great impulse to the project of constructing railways and commenced the great Ganges canal. Lord William Bentinck had put an end to Sati within British territories, but the immolation of women, human sacrifices, and infanticide were still common in the native states. Lord Hardinge used all the influence of a paramount power to induce the native states to abolish such customs, and with great success. Octroi duties were done away with. An Act was passed giving Calcutta a municipal council. Lord Hardinge was also successful as a financier. He reduced the numbers and cost of the army without impairing its efficiency, and this saving, added to the increase of revenue from the Panjab, resulted in the first surplus since the time of Lord William Bentinck. Great encouragement was given to education by the announcement that in appointments to Government service preference would be given to candidates educated in the Government schools. The Engineering College at Rurki was established. Lord Hardinge left Calcutta in March 1848.

CHAPTER XI.

LORD DALHOUSIE: THE SECOND SIKH WAR.

1848 A.D. TO 1856 A.D.

369. Lord Dalhousie.
370. The Second Sikh war.
371. Multan captured.
372. Battle of Chillianwalla.
373. Battle of Gujarat.
374. Annexation of the Panjab.

369. Lord Dalhousie.—Lord Dalhousie, the new Governor-General, landed at Calcutta in January 1848. He was only in his thirty-sixth year. He had sat in the House of Commons for some years, and as President of the Board of Trade had shown pre-eminent ability and fitness for business. For eight years he ruled India, and the effects of his administration were seen in the happiness and peace he brought its millions of inhabitants. Lord Hardinge, on leaving Calcutta, had intimated a belief that he had secured peace to India for the next seven years. But he had not been seven months out of the country when all was again in a blaze. The Sikhs had been defeated in war, but they had not been subdued.

370. The Second Sikh war.—A Sikh named Mulraj was Viceroy of Multan, but not liking the new system of administration he resigned his government. The English Resident and the Council of Regency accepted his resignation. A certain Khan Singh was appointed his successor, and Mr. Vans Agnew, a Bengal civilian, was sent with him to introduce into Multan the new revenue system that had been adopted at Lahor. Mulraj visited Mr. Vans Agnew and submitted his accounts for the year. Mr. Vans Agnew called for the accounts for the past six years. Mulraj agreed to comply with the officer's request; but as he left his presence there was a frown

on his brow that forebaded no good. Mr. Vans Agnew proceeded with Mulraj to inspect the establishments in the citadel. On returning he was stabbed, when passing through the gate of the fort. Mulraj at once galloped off to his own residence and Mr. Vans Agnew and another officer were cut to pieces. Mulraj then occupied the citadel and proclaimed a religious war against the English. Lord Gough was anxious to postpone military operations till the cool season. But Lieutenant Edwardes (afterwards Sir Herbert Edwardes), a young officer of great energy and daring, helped by General Von Cortlandt of the Sikh army, raised a corps of Pathans and Beluchis, defeated Mulraj in two engagements (Kineri and Saddosam), and shut him up in Multan. Had a sufficiently strong force been at once sent to Edwardes' aid the rebellion might have been easily quelled. The English Government, however, regarded the affair as a local outbreak against the government of the Panjab and hesitated to send troops. It soon became clear that disaffection was general. A plot to murder all the English at Lahor was discovered. The Maharani was at the bottom of it, and she was sent as prisoner to Benares. Subsequently a British force under General Whish was sent to assist Edwardes against Multan. A Sikh army of five thousand men, under an influential chief named Sher Singh, was also sent to co-operate with Whish. But no sooner had the latter opened his guns on Multan than Sher Singh led his army over to the side of Mulraj and proclaimed a religious war against the English. General Whish was forced to retire. Immediately the whole of the Panjab was in arms. Lord Dalhousie now saw that the Sikh war must be fought over again; and he determined that it should be followed by the annexation of the Panjab to the British possessions. In October 1848 he set out for the Panjab. At a farewell entertainment

1846 A.D.

given him at Calcutta, he said: "Unwarned by precedent, uninfluenced by example, the Sikh nation has called for war; and, on my word, Sirs, they shall have it with a vengeance."

371. Multan captured. — In November the army which had been assembled under Lord Gough at Firuzpur crossed the Ravi. At Ramnagar they came up with the enemy and gained a doubtful victory. On the 3rd January General Whish, whose numbers had been strongly reinforced, carried Multan by storm after a tremendous cannonade, and Mulraj was forced to retire within the citadel. With heroic bravery Mulraj held out amidst a continuous storm of shell and shot until there was not a roof left standing in the citadel; and not until his soldiers called on him to lead them against the besiegers or give up the fortress did he surrender. The body of Mr. Vans Agnew was disinterred, carried through the breach by which the assailants had entered to the highest point of the citadel and there buried with military honours.

1849 A.D.

372. Battle of Chillianwalla.—Meanwhile a most sanguinary battle had been fought between the Commander-in-Chief and Sher Singh. The latter had taken up a strong position at Chillianwalla, with jungle in front so dense that it was impossible for cavalry to penetrate it. In the afternoon, Lord Gough came upon Sher Singh somewhat unexpectedly, and ordered his men to the attack. One division of the English under General Campbell (Lord Clyde) succeeded in carrying its point. Another was driven back with a terrible loss. The Sikhs fought like demons. The battle raged till dark, when the English became the masters of the field. The Sikhs taking all their baggage with them encamped three miles distant. The battle of Chillianwalla was one of the most

sanguinary in the history of British India. Both sides claimed a victory; both sides fired salutes in honour of it. The British captured twelve guns, but four of their guns and the colours of three regiments were carried off by the Sikhs. The British loss was two thousand four hundred officers and men. The result of this battle was such as to raise the power of the Sikhs high in the eyes of the world, and to lower the reputation of the English cavalry, who had behaved in the most cowardly way.

373. **Battle of Gujarat.**—When the news of this disaster reached England, all was alarm and indignation. Lord Gough was at once recalled and Sir Charles Napier sent out to take the command. But, before the news of Lord Gough's recall reached India, he had retrieved his fame by the crowning victory of Gujarat (22nd February), known as "the battle of the guns," because it was won chiefly through the use of artillery. In this battle the Sikhs were utterly defeated and pursued for fifteen miles. Their camp, standards and fifty-three guns fell into the hands of the victors. The Sikh army was reduced to a mere wreck. All hope of successful resistance was gone. Sher Singh and Chatar Singh with many more of the Sikh chieftains surrendered.

374. **Annexation of the Panjab.**—Lord Dalhousie issued a proclamation declaring the kingdom of the Panjab at an end. A pension of five lakhs a year was given to Dhulip Singh, and for years he lived in England as an English landowner. The celebrated jewel, the Koh-i-nor, was set apart for the English crown. Lord Dalhousie was created a Marquis. The leaders of the rebellion were deprived of their jaghirs. The people in the Panjab were disarmed. The lands were leased and the land-tax was reduced; and more than thirty thousand of the Khalsa army exchanged the sword for the ploughshare. Transit

duties were abolished, slavery and dacoity were put down with a high hand, and all the weight of the Government was employed, and employed successfully, in stopping infanticide. Roads and canals were constructed throughout the length and breadth of the land. The government introduced into the province "was the greatest triumph under the Company's rule, and did honour to European civilization." Many of the Sikh soldiers that had fought so bravely at Sobraon or Chillianwalla enlisted under the British flag, and during the sepoy mutiny of 1857 were the first to assist in recovering Delhi from the hands of the mutineers.

CHAPTER XII.

LORD DALHOUSIE: FURTHER ANNEXATIONS.

1848 A.D. TO 1856 A.D.

375. The Second Burmese war.
376. Annexation of Pegu.
377. The Doctrine of Lapse.
378. Annexation of Oudh.
379. Barar ceded.
380. Material progress.

375. The Second Burmese war.—Three years after the conquest of the Panjab, Lord Dalhousie was most reluctantly forced into a war with Burma. The English merchants were so oppressed by the Burmese officials that they laid their complaints before the Indian Government and asked for protection. Lord Dalhousie sent Commodore Lambert in the war-ship *Fox* to enquire into the complaints. The Governor of Rangoon on the arrival of the English ship forbade all communication with it. Some Europeans, however, got on board and succeeded in getting a letter which Lambert had brought from Lord Dalhousie to the King at Ava, conveyed thither. The Governor of Rangoon was thereupon dismissed, but the new Governor treated the English even worse than his predecessor.

376. Annexation of Pegu. — Commodore Lambert seized one of the king's ships. The Burmese opened fire on him from their stockades; but the stockades were soon demolished and Rangoon was blockaded. Lord Dalhousie sent an expedition from Calcutta but was careful to avoid the mistakes made in the previous war. The health of the troops was preserved by providing them with proper accommodation during the monsoon, and in the ensuing cold weather Rangoon was captured and the great Pagoda carried by storm. Basin and Prome next fell before the English, and the Burmese troops retreated to Upper Burma. Meanwhile the reigning King at Ava had been deposed, and his half-brother placed upon the throne. He eagerly sued for peace. Pegu was added to the British possessions, and a Chief Commissioner was appointed over British Burma.

377. The Doctrine of Lapse.—Lord Dalhousie's government is remarkable for the use made of the political principle so named, which was, that if a ruler of a dependent state had no natural heir his state lapsed to the paramount power, unless he had adopted a son with the permission of that power. The enforcing of this doctrine was a distinct change of policy, because whereas the older school of politicians in India had avoided annexations, Lord Dalhousie welcomed every possible opportunity for them. His motives were very good. He believed that the people would be better governed and more prosperous under British rule, but his motive was misunderstood and great discontent was created by his policy, which discontent had very serious influence on future events. Eight native states were annexed under this doctrine, of which the largest was Nagpur, the Raja of which had died without an heir and had not adopted a son. Others were Satara and Sambalpur. 1853 A.D.

378. **Annexation of Oudh.**—Lord Dalhousie also annexed the large and populous kingdom of Oudh. Oudh was conquered by the English in 1764, but Lord Clive restored it to the Nawab Vizier. In 1801 a large part of the kingdom was ceded to Lord Wellesley to provide the means for maintaining an efficient army to defend Hindustan against the Mahrattas and Afghans. From the time of Lord Wellesley the Government of Oudh had been of the most shameful and tyrannical kind. Although the British guaranteed the protection of Oudh from foreign enemies, the Nawab maintained an army of seventy thousand men. The pay of these men was small, and, as a natural consequence, they plundered the people and committed the most horrible atrocities. Every successive Governor-General had called on the Nawab to reform his Government. Lord William Bentinck had even threatened to take the administration of the country into his own hands. But things went on as before. The Government was one monstrous system of corruption. Offices were sold to the highest bidders, and the purchasers recouped themselves by plunder and extortion. Lord Dalhousie and the Court of Directors resolved to put an end to such a Government. They therefore annexed the kingdom of Oudh. The king was removed to Calcutta; and thus the sovereignty of the kings of Oudh was brought to a close. We shall see that this annexation was a disastrous mistake. But in this case also we must recognise the purity of the Governor-General's motives. "Millions of God's creatures," he thought, "would draw freedom and happiness from the change."

1856 A.D.

379. **Barar ceded.**—At Haidarabad too Lord Dalhousie had to interfere. The British Government had advanced large sums of money to meet the expenses of the Nizam's contingent, and the Nizam had delayed to liquidate the

debt. Lord Dalhousie therefore compelled the Nizam to cede the province of Barar, which had been given to Haidarabad on the overthrow of the Raja of Nagpur in 1803. Since then Barar has been under British administration; but all surplus revenue is handed over to the Nizam's treasury.

380. Material progress.—Lord Dalhousie's name is not only associated with the policy of annexation. He introduced reforms into every part of the administration, and his influence was felt in every province and in every department of Government. The first railway in India was opened in 1853, and during Lord Dalhousie's administration four thousand miles of electric telegraph were constructed and two thousand miles of road made. The Ganges canal, the longest in the world, was opened. A cheap and uniform rate of postage was introduced, and a great scheme of public works, to be carried on by borrowing money, was planned.

Other important changes were due rather to the action of the authorities at home than to the Governor-General. In 1853 the East India Company's Charter was renewed for the last time. In 1854 the Board of Control, in reply to the Governor-General's proposals for extending vernacular instruction, sent out the famous despatch on national education which resulted in the establishment of the Indian universities and of a department of education, and the beginning of the modern system of state-aided and controlled instruction.

CHAPTER XIII.

LORD CANNING: THE SEPOY MUTINY.

1856 A.D. TO 1858 A.D.

381. Lord Canning.
382. Causes of the Mutiny.
383. Outbreak of the Mutiny.
384. Delhi in the hands of the rebels.
385. Sir John Lawrence in the Panjab.
386. Outbreak at Lucknow.
387. Mutiny at Jhansi.
388. Massacre at Cawnpur.
389. Havelock takes Cawnpur.
390. Capture of Delhi.
391. Emperor of Delhi a prisoner.
392. Relief of Lucknow.
393. Suppression of the Mutiny.

381. Lord Canning.—Lord Canning, the son of the great statesman who had been on the point of coming to India as Governor-General in 1820, was the next Governor-General. He was forty-four years of age when he arrived in India. He had held high office under the English Government, and had proved himself to be an able and safe administrator. He was on that account sent out to India to carry to completion the great work of moral and material progress that had been begun by Lord Dalhousie. On Lord Canning's arrival in India all was peace; and no one would have imagined that within a few months the whole of Hindustan, from Calcutta to the Panjab, would be in a state of open rebellion.

382. Causes of the Mutiny.—There can be no doubt that much had been done by Lord Dalhousie's Government to produce a feeling of distrust and animosity towards British rule. The policy of annexation had made the princes of India feel that no ruling house was safe from spoliation. The annexation of Oudh and the administrative arrangements consequent on it had roused a general spirit of disaffection there, and it must not be forgotten that the Bengal army was largely recruited

from Oudh. The adopted son of the ex-Peshwa, Nana Sahib, had been deprived of his pension, and arrangements had been made for the family of the Mughal emperors to vacate the palace at Delhi and retire into private life. Laws had been passed removing legal obstacles to the re-marriage of widows and for curtailing polygamy, which seemed to show an inclination to interfere with the religion of the people, and the fear thus aroused had been strengthened by the attempts of some civil and military officers to make converts to Christianity in their districts and their regiments. The military classes had been offended by a decree that all recruits should declare their willingness to serve over sea if called upon. The strict and impartial administration of law had resulted in too many cases in the noble holders of estates being displaced by usurers. These causes made the country ripe for rebellion, and there is little doubt that a widespread political intrigue, in which the courts of Delhi and Oudh and the Nana Sahib were all involved, existed before the outbreak of the mutiny. The immediate cause of this, however, was no doubt the affair of the greased cartridges. Early in 1857 a dangerous story got abroad. A new rifle, called the Enfield rifle, was being introduced into the native army. It required a new kind of cartridge, and these were greased in England with the fat of the pig and the cow. The Indian military authorities ordered the cartridges to be made at Calcutta in a similar manner. The sepoys on many a hard-fought field had proved themselves brave under fire and true to their salt; but they were superstitious and credulous to the highest degree. They regarded the locomotive trains and the telegraph as caused by magic; and when the railways were being laid and the telegraph wires were being put up they believed that the English were binding India with chains. This new rifle was to them another mystery, and reasons were at once sought for why the

English should introduce it into the army and thereby destroy their caste by asking them to use cartridges greased in this way. Reasons were soon forthcoming from their excited brains. They had conquered India for the English. The English now wanted them to conquer Persia and China also. Caste was to be abolished. They were to be forced to become Christians and to eat of the cow and pig as the English did. The story of the greased cartridges was soon carried from Calcutta to Benares, and thence to Delhi, Agra, and Meerut; and on its way many extraordinary additions were made to it. Soon there was a restlessness throughout the whole native army. The soldiers became haughty in their bearing, and did not show their officers the same respect they had hitherto done.

383. **Outbreak of the Mutiny.**—The first open outbreak took place at Barhampur, where the 19th Native Infantry refused to receive the cartridges. The regiment was marched out to Barrackpur and disbanded, and two of the leaders were hanged. On the 3rd of May there was a blaze at Lucknow; but Sir Henry Lawrence, the Commissioner of Oudh, with a European regiment which he had with him, quickly put out the flame. It was now thought the restlessness and disquietude of the soldiery would pass away. For seven days there was calm. On the 10th May the storm burst in all its fury at Meerut. Meerut is situated about forty miles from Delhi. It was one of the largest cantonments in Hindustan. There were three native regiments stationed there—two of infantry and one of cavalry. There was also a European force sufficiently strong to put to rout many times their number. Notwithstanding the presence of the European force, the sepoys at Meerut became even more insolent than the sepoys at other stations, and one day when the cartridges were handed out to them—not the new cartridges that had been greased, but the same kind of

cartridges that they had hitherto used—eighty-four of their number refused to take them. After being tried, seventy-four of them were sent to gaol. The next day was Sunday, the 10th. May. From early morning there was a commotion in the town. The sepoys, taunted by the citizens for allowing their comrades to be sent to gaol in irons, became excited, and the excitement grew to a frenzy. Joined by the rabble, they attacked the gaol, set the prisoners free, murdered every European—man, woman, and child—they could find, and, when they had plundered and set fire to the station, they set off to Delhi. Meanwhile the European force, which could easily have quelled the mutiny, was, through the incapacity and imbecility of the General, kept within its cantonments which were a considerable distance from the native lines. In the evening they were led down to the native barracks, but, when they arrived there, they found the lines deserted and the sepoys gone to Delhi. Had the General been a Gillespie, he would have galloped off after the rebels. But no. He kept his men where they were, and the morrow saw the mutiny in a regiment become a rebellion against the British Government, with the old Mughal, Bahadur Shah, proclaimed sovereign of Hindustan. 1857 A.D.

384. Delhi in the hands of the rebels.—Monday at Delhi was even worse than Sunday at Meerut. The news reached Delhi that the rebels were coming, and before any preparations could be made to oppose them they were on the bridge and entering the city. They were soon joined by the Delhi sepoys, who shot down their officers. Bahadur Shah, the ex-Mughal, fancying that this revolt would lead to his being reinstated on the throne of Babar, placed himself at their head. The Europeans in the palace were murdered. The great powder magazine was in the centre of the city, in charge of Lieutenant Willoughby and eight

others. They resolved to defend it to the last, and, in case of no relief coming to them, to blow it up. The gates were barricaded, and cannon, loaded with grape, were so placed as to command the approach to the magazine. On came the seething mass of rebel sepoys and rabble citizens, and the grape from the cannon made terrible havoc of them. At last the ammunition was expended. The eight could not leave their guns to bring more. The rebels were forcing their way on all sides. A train which the defenders had laid to the magazine was fired by Conductor Scully on a signal by Willoughby. Suddenly there was a tremendous report and an upheaving and shaking of the earth. A dense cloud of smoke was seen rising in the air. The powder magazine was blown up, and with it fifteen hundred of the rebel host. Willoughby was scorched and maimed, but succeeded in reaching Meerut where he died from his wounds six weeks after, while all the world was ringing with his praise. Scully, who fired the train, was never seen again. By nightfall Delhi was lost to the English. Those that had survived the day's disasters were forced to flee for their lives under cover of the night, and the sufferings they endured in the days that followed are most touching to read of. All this while the English force, which might have saved them, was kept at Meerut. Thus, though "the greased cartridges" created the panic and brought about the mutiny, it was the incapacity of the military authorities at Meerut that raised the revolt in Hindustan.

385. Sir John Lawrence in the Panjab.—Delhi in the hands of the rebels! The news was carried from station to station. The sepoys, mad with excitement and fear, rushed on their officers, put them and every European they met to the sword, and hurried off to the Mughal capital or some other centre of the mutiny.

But, wherever the Europeans were in force, the country was either saved or the mischief of the rebels reduced to the minimum. In the Panjab Sir John Lawrence and the noble band of heroes and statesmen he had with him were called on to perform a task almost superhuman. The Panjab had been but recently conquered, and to maintain order and support the law it had been garrisoned with sepoy regiments from Bengal. Those sepoys, who had been stationed there to preserve the peace, broke out in open mutiny. Fortunately the Sikhs, themselves mindful of the sufferings they had endured when under their chieftains, and realizing the blessings they enjoyed under the new Government of the Chief Commissioner, proved true to the British and were eager to be led against the rebels. Sir John Lawrence was able, therefore, not only to suppress the mutiny in the Panjab, but also to send forward reinforcements of brave Sikhs, ammunition and baggage, to the aid of the army assembled near Delhi, which was awaiting additional strength before storming that city.

386. **Outbreak at Lucknow.**—While Sir John Lawrence was accomplishing such great things in the Panjab, his brother, Sir Henry Lawrence, was winning an immortal name at Lucknow. Ever since the blaze at Lucknow on the 3rd May, Sir Henry Lawrence had looked forward to the probability of a general rising, and had made preparations accordingly. All the European non-combatants were brought within the walls of the Residency, and defence works were thrown up and preparations made to withstand a siege. On the 30th May the sepoys mutinied as Sir Henry had anticipated, and when they failed in their attack on the English they hurried off to Delhi.

387. **Mutiny at Jhansi.**—At Jhansi a dark crime was committed. The sepoys mutinied, and as at other

places shot their officers. The survivors took refuge in the fort, and held out with the utmost bravery till the Rani solemnly swore she would spare their lives and conduct them in safety to another station if they would surrender. The brave little garrison accepted her terms, and now that the Rani had them in her power she butchered in cold blood every one of them—men, women and children —to the number of fifty-five, in revenge for the British Government not having allowed her to adopt an heir.

388. **Massacre at Cawnpur.**—But more treacherous and darker still were the crimes perpetrated at Cawnpur on the banks of the Ganges. Cawnpur was at one time a great military station, and large numbers of European troops were kept there. But, with the advance of the British frontier from the Chambal to the Satlej and thence to the Indus, the European forces were located further to the north-west. Near Cawnpur was Bithaur, the residence that had been granted to Baji Rao, the last Peshwa. His adopted son, Dhundu Pant, better known as the Nana Sahib, was living there, and although he pretended to be exceedingly friendly to the English, and entertained the English officers in the most hospitable and courteous way, he was still burning with a desire to have revenge on the British Government, because they had refused to continue to him the personal allowance of eighty lakhs a year which they had paid to Baji Rao. In May 1857 the European force at Cawnpur consisted of sixty-four artillery men, and the officers that commanded the native regiments, which numbered three thousand five hundred sepoys. Old General Wheeler was in command. No man in India knew the sepoys better than he did. He had led them under Lord Lake against their own countrymen, and against the Afghans and the Sikhs in the late Afghan and Sikh wars. And while the officers of each regiment believed that, though other regiments might revolt, their

own men who had hitherto ever proved true to their salt and fought with the utmost valour under the British flag would not, General Wheeler had no such confidence, and he made preparations to meet the coming storm. Some old barracks, that had formerly been occupied by British troops, were selected by him as a place of refuge for the Europeans. Earthworks were ordered to be thrown up and provisions to be collected, so that they might be able to stand a siege.

On the 4th June the same mad terror seized the sepoys at Cawnpur as at other stations. A wild and wicked report was circulated amongst them that the English had mined the parade ground, and that on a certain day the sepoys were all to be assembled and blown into the air. Maddened with fear they flew to arms, and when they had somewhat spent their rage they set off to Delhi. The treachery and deceit of Nana Sahib were soon apparent. He thought he saw, as in a dream, how this rebellion might be used for the re-establishment of the Mahratta power. When he heard of the mutineers having gone off to Delhi he at once set out after them, and by promising large sums of money prevailed on them to return to Cawnpur. He put himself at their head. Their guns were soon got into position, and a destructive fire was poured on the English entrenchments. For three weeks the siege continued; but the Nana Sahib and Tantia Topi, his General, notwithstanding their overwhelming numbers, were unable to carry the entrenchments by storm. At last, on the 23rd June, the Nana Sahib offered to give a safe passage to Allahabad if General Wheeler and his men would lay down their arms. The defenders were most unwilling to do so. They feared to trust themselves in the power of their besiegers. They would rather have fought to the bitter end. But there were many women and children there, and the only chance of safety for them was to accept the Nana's terms. On the morning

of the 27th June the garrison left their entrenchments and marched to the river, where forty boats were awaiting them. By nine o'clock four hundred and fifty persons were crowded into those boats, and they left their moorings to sail down the river. A signal was given. Suddenly a murderous volley was fired on the occupants of the boats from both sides of the river. The thatched roofs of the boats were set on fire and the flames spread from boat to boat. Many of the passengers were murdered in the river; many who tried to escape were shot. The women and children, to the number of one hundred and twenty-four, were carried off to a house near the head-quarters of the Nana Sahib. Of the whole garrison that left the entrenchments only four survived to tell of the massacre that had taken place.

389. **Havelock takes Cawnpur.**—Retribution for this most terrible crime was not long delayed. Colonel Neill with the Madras Fusiliers pushed on from Calcutta, and joined General Havelock at Allahabad. General Havelock had already greatly distinguished himself in the Afghan and Sikh wars; and during the next few weeks he was to make a name for himself that will last as long as the history of the British in India. The news of the massacre of Cawnpur reached General Havelock. He had only two thousand men with him, but forward he at once set, and after several victories, two of which he gained in one day, he arrived on the 15th July within eight miles of Cawnpur. On the evening of that day the Nana Sahib filled his cup of iniquity to the brim. His army had been defeated. In revenge, the English women and children whom he had in his possession, and who now numbered two hundred persons, were ordered by him to be put to death, and after being literally hacked to pieces, their mangled corpses were thrown into a well. Next day Havelock, who as yet knew nothing of the butchery that had taken place,

advanced, and driving Nana Sahib's forces before him at the point of the bayonet entered Cawnpur. There the English army beheld the bleeding victims, but the murderers were gone. Bithaur was at once taken, and Havelock set out for Lucknow, leaving Neill at Cawnpur.

390. Capture of Delhi.—Meanwhile the English force on the ridge outside Delhi had been holding its own, though unable to attack the city. On the 23rd June, the centenary of Plassey, the utmost effort was made by the insurgents to dislodge the British, as a prophecy had been given forth that at the end of one hundred years the British Raj would come to an end. The fight continued for hours, but the rebels were forced to retire with the loss of one thousand men. Similar actions took place during the next two months. On the 14th September the British forces, which had been strengthened and now numbered eight thousand men, made their final assault on the mighty city. A breach having been effected, they rushed in, and after continuous house-to-house fighting for six days, the city was taken, and this "before a single soldier of the many thousands that were hastening from England to uphold the supremacy of the British power had set foot on the shores of India."

391. The Emperor of Delhi a prisoner.—On the 21st September Captain Hodson captured Bahadur Shah at the tomb of Humayun, and brought him back to Delhi. On the following day he arrested two of the king's sons and brought them away in a native carriage. When approaching the city he was surrounded by a large and tumultuous crowd, and fearing they might try to rescue his prisoners, he took out his pistol and shot them dead. Old Bahadur Shah was subsequently tried and found guilty of murder and treason. He was transported to Rangoon,

where he died four years after. Thus passed away the last relic of the Mughal sovereignty.

392. Relief of Lucknow.—The capture of Delhi was the turning point in the history of the mutiny. But there was still much to be done before quiet could be restored. The Residency at Lucknow was besieged. Havelock had advanced more than once from Cawnpur to its relief, but, from the weakness of his force, and disease and sickness amongst his men, he had been compelled to retire. During this time the good and noble Sir Henry Lawrence had been holding the Residency against the besiegers, and inspiring every man and woman there with his own daring and resolution. But on the 4th July he had been killed, leaving as a dying counsel to those around him "Never surrender." And they had never surrendered. And now (16th September) while the British troops were forcing their way through the streets of Delhi, General Outram joined Havelock at Cawnpur with one thousand four hundred men. With the most generous chivalry, General Outram, though General Havelock's senior, took the second place in command, that the latter might have the privilege of relieving the besieged at Lucknow, for whom he had already dared so much. On the 20th September Havelock crossed the Ganges. Six days after he cut his way through the streets of Lucknow and entered the British entrenchments in triumph. The garrison was thus relieved; but the siege was not raised. For four months longer the rebels held the city.

393. Suppression of the Mutiny.—By this time Sir Colin Campbell (Lord Clyde), who left England at a day's notice to take the chief command, had arrived in India, and had put to rout the Gwalior Contingent that had revolted under Tantia Topi, and had recovered

Cawnpur. Lucknow next fell before him and the rebels were put to flight. In the general campaign that followed, they were everywhere hunted down, and the British sovereignty was restored in Oudh and Rohilkhand. At the same time Sir Hugh Rose, with a small but well-appointed force, advanced from Bombay, captured fort after fort, gained victory after victory, and, when he had taken Jhansi, stormed Kalpi, the chief arsenal still in the hands of the rebels, and scattered a force of two thousand men under Tantia Topi, he concluded he had restored order to Central India. It was not so. Tantia Topi had only disappeared to re-appear at Gwalior, where he succeeded in so corrupting the forces of Sindia (who with Dinkar Rao, his minister, had remained a staunch friend of the British Government), that they rose in rebellion and Sindia was forced to take to flight. This rebellion was but short-lived. Sir Hugh Rose hastened to Gwalior and put to rout the rebel forces. In the action, the Rani of Jhansi, who was fighting on the side of the rebels in male attire, was slain. Tantia Topi retreated, accompanied by six thousand men. Two days later Brigadier Robert Napier (Lord Napier of Magdala), with six hundred cavalry and six field guns, dashing in amongst the fugitives carried off all their artillery. For two months more Tantia Topi evaded the British troops. His hiding-place was then discovered. He was taken, tried, convicted and hanged. The rebellion was quelled. It only remained for the victors to temper justice with mercy. The leaders in the rebellion—such as could be secured—were punished. The ignorant and misguided instruments of their brutality were forgiven. The faithful were rewarded. The Nana Sahib, the greatest of the miscreants, escaped, and, it is supposed, died in Nepal.

CHAPTER XIV.

LORD CANNING, VICEROY: RESULTS OF THE MUTINY.

1858 A.D. TO 1862 A.D.

394. India under the Crown.
395. The Queen's Proclamation.
396. Reorganisation of the Army.
397. The Crown and the Native Princes.

394. India under the Crown.—The mutiny forced English statesmen and the whole English nation to consider the needs and circumstances of India as they had never done before. It was clear that misgovernment had had much to do with bringing it about, and the question was, could such misgovernment be avoided in the future? Two bills were brought into the House of Commons, the first by Lord Palmerston, a Whig, and the second by Mr. Disraeli, a Tory, to reorganise the government of India, but neither were approved and finally the two great parties united to decide on the principles of the new "India Bill." One thing was easily decided. The dual government of the Crown and the Board of Control, and the East India Company through its Directors, must come to an end. The Company had ceased to trade and in all political matters was guided by the Board of Control; its further existence was worse than useless because it made the administration cumbrous and slow. It was therefore decided to transfer the whole government of India to the Crown, which would exercise its powers through a Secretary of State. The next point was the constitution of a council to advise the Secretary of State. It was decided that this should consist of fifteen members nominated by the Crown, of whom eight must have served for ten years in India. An Act of Parliament thus bringing India under the Crown was passed on the 2nd August 1858. This Act also laid down that appointments to the Civil

Service, the Engineers, and Artillery were to be thrown open and filled by competitive examination. Indian revenues were not to be spent on war outside India. Orders for the commencement of any war in India were to be communicated to Parliament without delay.

395. The Queen's Proclamation. — On the 1st November 1858 the proclamation of Her Most Gracious Majesty Queen VICTORIA was publicly read at all the principal stations in India, and was translated into all the vernacular languages. It has been called the Magna Charta of India. It proclaimed the transfer of the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. It made known that the British Government had no desire or intention of interfering in any way with the religion or caste of the Hindus. It confirmed all existing treaties, rights and usages, and proclaimed a free pardon to all rebels except such as had been implicated in the murder of the British. It concluded with these words :— "It is Our earnest desire to stimulate the peaceful industry of India, to promote works of public utility and improvement, and to administer its Government for the benefit of all Our subjects resident therein. In their prosperity will be Our strength ; in their contentment Our security ; and in their gratitude Our best reward. And may the God of all power grant to Us, and to those in authority under Us, strength to carry out those Our wishes for the good of Our people."

396. Reorganisation of the Army.—The Bengal army, which included all the native troops in Northern India, had been practically destroyed by the Mutiny, and advantage was taken of this fact to put the native army on a new footing. In the new regiments men of different races and castes from the old army were mostly enrolled—Sikhs, Pathans, Gurkhas, and low castes,—and regiments were

often made up of companies of different castes or races. The artillery was taken out of the hands of the sepoys. Much more care was taken about the selection of European officers for the native army. These were appointed only on the results of examinations and other tests of fitness. Another great change was the abolition of the old European army in India. This was partly the result of what was called the "White Mutiny," the insubordination of several European regiments that were unwilling to be transferred from the Company's service to that of the Crown. The European army in India was fixed at 80,000 men to be provided by the Imperial army.

397. The Crown and the Native Princes.—The Queen's Proclamation guaranteed the rights of the native princes of India, but to place their position as nobles of the Empire beyond all doubt each was granted a *Sannad* or *patent of nobility* in which the right of adoption is recognised. In this way the "doctrine of lapse" was entirely given up. One hundred and fifty-three princes received this sannad, and gladly welcomed the change which brought them into direct relationship with the British Crown. The issue of these sannads was Lord Canning's last official act. In March 1862 he left India. He was one of the most laborious and conscientious statesmen that ever ruled India. He died a few months after his return to England, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

CHAPTER XV.

LORD ELGIN AND SIR JOHN LAWRENCE.

1862 A.D. TO 1869 A.D.

398. The Sitana Expedition.
399. Bhutan.
400. The Orissa Famine.
401. Material Progress.
402. Relations with Afghanistan.

398. The Sitana Expedition.—At this place in the hills to the north of Peshawar were gathered together men who were thought dangerous to the peace of India. These were Wahabis or Muhammadan fanatics, and sepoys who had escaped from the war. These people were in communication with the disaffected in other parts, and particularly in Patna, and as it was believed they meditated a descent on British territory, it was thought necessary to send an expedition against them. A force was accordingly sent under Sir Neville Chamberlain. The frontier tribes thought that their independence was menaced and blocked the Ambaila pass through which Chamberlain had to advance. Reinforcements were sent and the pass was stormed. The tribesmen not only submitted but volunteered themselves to destroy the strongholds of the fanatics. Chamberlain had been wounded and General Carvock had taken command. He accepted the offer of the tribes, and in the presence of a British force they punctually carried out their engagement.

Before the success of this expedition was assured Lord Elgin died. Since the time of Lord Cornwallis the office of Governor-General had always been filled by a distinguished English statesman. Now this rule was broken through and Sir John Lawrence, who had rendered such signal service in the Panjab, was appointed Viceroy. He arrived at Calcutta in January 1864 and took over charge of his

office from Sir William Denison, Governor of Madras, who had officiated, Madras being the senior Presidency.

399. Bhutan.—One of the first matters which claimed the new Viceroy's attention was the British relations with the Bhutanese. Bhutan is a mountain state on the borders of Assam, and the Bhutanese had been accustomed to pay tribute to the rulers of Assam. They had ceased to pay tribute and had taken to making raids on British territory. Mr. Ashley Eden was sent as a British envoy to conclude a treaty with them, but the time was ill chosen as the state was under the control, not of the real raja, but of a rebel chief. When he reached the capital the British envoy was subjected to insult and forced to sign a treaty surrendering the whole of Assam. The Government disavowed this treaty and demanded redress, and as the Bhutanese took no notice it was determined to seize the Western Dwars or passes from Bengal to Bhutan. An expedition was sent and the passes were occupied, the Bhutanese making hardly any opposition. Soon after, however, they attacked a fort held by a detachment of Sikhs and the garrison had to retire. A strong force under General Tombs was then sent and the Bhutanese submitted. Peace was made on the condition of further cession of territory and the Eastern Dwars or passes into Assam. For these, however, the Government agreed to pay a rent, and the arrangement has proved satisfactory, as there has been no trouble with Bhutan since.

400. The Orissa Famine.—In 1865 the rainfall in Bengal was deficient and the result was that even in the Lower Provinces, which usually escape, there was severe famine. It was, however, worst in Orissa, and unhappily very insufficient measures were taken by Government to meet it. When relief was given it was given in money, but it was found that the starving people could not

buy food with the money because it was impossible to get sufficient grain into the province. The famine was followed by destructive floods, and it was estimated that one-fourth of the people of Orissa lost their lives in these calamities. They drew attention, however, to the backward state of Orissa, and led to the spending of a good deal of money to provide better means of communication and irrigation.

401. Material Progress.—The famine in Bengal and Orissa was balanced by the very great prosperity in other parts of India. The American Civil War had stopped the supply of cotton from America, and consequently England was glad to receive great imports of Indian cotton. Even after the war was over India still retained this export trade, the advantages of which were chiefly felt in Bombay and the Central Provinces. Sir John Lawrence did his utmost to help traders by extending railways and telegraphs, improving irrigation, and very much lowering the postal rates. He also greatly improved the administration of Government by raising the pay of the subordinate officials, and so making them less liable to the temptation of bribes.

402. Relations with Afghanistan.—The policy adopted by Sir John Lawrence with reference to Afghanistan has been much discussed. There was a fratricidal war in that country. At one time Sher Ali was recognised as Amir of the whole of Afghanistan. But when Afzal Khan, his elder brother, drove him out of Kabul and he had to flee to Kandahar, Sir John Lawrence recognised the conqueror as ruler of Kabul, and Sher Ali as ruler of only Kandahar. Subsequently Sher Ali recovered the whole of the country and was again acknowledged Amir; and everything was done to secure his friendship, for Russia was again intriguing

and advancing far into Central Asia, and the policy of Sir John Lawrence was to secure a friendly Afghanistan as a bulwark against Russian aggression. Sir John Lawrence returned to England in 1869. He was raised to the Peerage. Ten years later he died, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. He was one of the greatest statesmen of this century, and no man has done more for the good of India than he did.

CHAPTER XVI.

LORD MAYO AND LORD NORTHBROOK.

1869 A.D. TO 1876 A.D.

403. Lord Mayo's administration. | 404. Lord Northbrook's administration.

403. Lord Mayo's administration.—The new Viceroy showed no inclination to depart from the policy of his predecessor. A few months after he took up office a meeting was arranged between him and Sher Ali at Umballa. The Amir was anxious for an alliance with the British, but this the Government was not willing to grant; he received promises, however, of assistance with arms and money. Lord Mayo next tried to make a peaceful arrangement with Russia and the Czar consented to a fixed frontier line between the Afghan and Russian dominions being arranged. A similar frontier line was drawn by British officers between Beluchistan and Persia. The Viceroy had next to look after the North-eastern frontier. Here the Lushais had been guilty of raiding, and a punitive expedition was sent, which, for the time at least, had a good effect. In 1872 Lord Mayo visited Burma, and spent some time there in taking a survey of the improvements that had been made since the days of Lord Dalhousie. On his way back to Calcutta he

visited the Andamans, and there his life ended in a tragedy. While going on board his ship in the dusk of the evening, he was stabbed by an Afghan who had been sentenced to penal servitude for life on account of a murder he had committed, and who now in his blind revenge put an end to the life of one of the most promising and most popular of Viceroys.

404. Lord Northbrook's administration. — Not very long after taking up the reins of Government Lord Northbrook had to pay attention to Afghan affairs. The British had made a treaty with Russia by which the northern boundary of Afghanistan was fixed. The result of this treaty was to give the Amir an increase of territory, but he seems to have been frightened by the fact that the Russian "sphere of influence" now extended up to his own border, and he complained of Persian oppression on his western border. He sent an envoy therefore to Lord Northbrook in 1873, and tried to obtain a formal alliance with the British; this the Government was not willing to grant, and Sher Ali remained dissatisfied. Another incident in Lord Northbrook's administration was the deposition of the Gaikwar of Baroda. This Mahratta chief had governed very badly, and was even accused of attempting to poison the Resident, Colonel Phayre. He was tried in 1875 by a commission consisting of three Europeans and three natives, the Rajas of Jeypore, Sindia, and Dinkar Rao. His judges disagreed as to his guilt, so he was given the benefit of the doubt. He was, however, deposed for his bad government, and his eldest son was made Gaikwar in his place.

In November 1875 the Prince of Wales arrived at Bombay and began a progress through India. The Prince was everywhere received with the greatest enthusiasm, and his journey was of great use in strengthening the tie which binds the Princes of India to the throne. Lord Northbrook

early in 1876 found he could not agree with the policy of the British Government and so resigned his post. Among the wise and humane features of his policy must be reckoned what he did to reduce the pressure of the salt tax, and his encouragement of the employment of natives in important posts.

CHAPTER XVII.

LORD LYTTON: THE SECOND AFGHAN WAR.

1876 A.D. TO 1880 A.D.

405. Events leading to the Second Afghan war.
406. The advance into Afghanistan.
407. Mutiny in Kabul.
408. Roberts at Kabul.
409. End of the war.
410. The Delhi Assemblage.
411. The Madras Famine.
412. Conclusion.

405. Events leading to the Second Afghan war.—It has been mentioned that Sher Ali much desired a definite alliance with the British Government and that it was the settled policy of that Government not to grant such an alliance, although it repeatedly undertook to protect Afghanistan against its enemies, especially Russia. In 1876 an arrangement was made with the Khan of Kelat by which Quetta, a post commanding the Bolan Pass, was occupied by the British. This caused fresh uneasiness to Sher Ali as it seemed to show aggressive intentions on the part of Great Britain. The next year Sher Ali's prime minister was sent to Peshawar, and was told that the British Government would not negotiate further with the Amir unless British officers were allowed to reside in Afghanistan.

Meanwhile war had broken out in Europe between Russia and Turkey. Great Britain intervened to prevent Russia seizing Constantinople, and at one time it seemed as

though there would be war between England and Russia. In April 1878 the British ministry ordered a number of Indian troops to be sent to Malta. This the Russians regarded as a threat and in return sent a mission to Afghanistan. The British Government, although danger of war with Russia in Europe was over, informed the Amir that Sir Neville Chamberlain was coming as special envoy to Kabul. The Amir protested and explained that the Afghans could not endure the presence of foreigners, and that he would get rid of the Russians as soon as possible. The British persisted and Sir Neville Chamberlain set out for Kabul, sending Major Cavagnari to arrange for the passage of the mission through the Kyber pass. At Ali Musjid the Major was informed that the mission could not proceed without orders from Kabul. Upon this the Viceroy wrote to Sher Ali and told him, that unless by a certain date he apologised and agreed to receive a permanent resident at Kabul he would be treated as an enemy. Sher Ali put off making submission till too late.

406. The advance into Afghanistan.—The British advanced in November 1878 in three strong columns and occupied Jallalabad and Kandahar. Sher Ali fled early in 1879, fell sick and died. His son Yakub Khan succeeded him, and in May made peace with the British and consented to allow British officers to reside in Afghanistan. At the same time a new frontier line between India and Afghanistan was arranged. This was called *the scientific frontier*. It gave the Indian Government control of the passes into Afghanistan and placed their outposts beyond the mountains. It was considered that this was a great advantage, because the Indian Government would now be able to watch what went on in Afghanistan instead of having to trust to the vague rumours that came through the passes.

407. Mutiny in Kabul.—Major, now Sir Louis, Cavagnari was sent to Kabul as British envoy and was well received on his arrival. The Afghans, however, could not endure the presence of the foreigners. In August a mutiny of troops demanding arrears of pay broke out. The Amir shut himself up in his palace, and the mutineers attacked the Residency and set it on fire. Cavagnari and the other officers were all killed.

408. Roberts at Kabul.—British armies were still in Afghanistan and General Roberts immediately advanced to Kabul. Yakub Khan came out and joined him and he occupied the city, proclaimed martial war, prohibited the wearing of arms and executed many of the mutineers. Meanwhile Sir Donald Stewart was with an army at Kandahar, and he was ordered to advance on Ghazni. In doing so he was attacked by a large force of Afghans at Ahmed Khel and only beat them with difficulty. Yakub Khan had abdicated and retired into British territory, and his brother Ayub Khan was in arms against the British. At Maisand he inflicted a severe defeat on General Burrows, and then besieged Kandahar. General Roberts was sent by Sir Donald Stewart to relieve the place, and making his celebrated forced march from Kabul to Kandahar, in three weeks arrived at Kandahar on 31st August 1880. He defeated and dispersed Ayub Khan's army and Ayub Khan himself fled to Herat.

409. End of the war. — In England the war had brought about a change of ministries. Lord Beaconsfield had had to resign and Mr. Gladstone had returned to power with a large majority. Lord Lytton resigned his office and the new Government sent out Lord Ripon in his place, charged with the duty of restoring peace and settled government to Afghanistan. A grandson of Dost Muhammad named Abdur Rahman was chosen as the new Amir

and as soon as matters could be arranged the British troops left the country.

410. The Delhi Assemblage.—On the 1st January 1877 a great assemblage of Indian Princes was held at Delhi to hear proclaimed by the Viceroy the assumption by the Queen of the title "Empress of India." This change of title was part of the policy of Lord Beaconsfield. It was much criticised at the time, but it is probably an advantage that the Queen should use in India a title that properly describes her relation to the rulers of the native states.

411. The Madras Famine.—While this splendid ceremony was being performed at Delhi, Southern India was suffering from a terrible famine. The north-east monsoon of 1876 failed, and acute famine over most of the Madras Presidency, Haidarabad, Mysore, and part of the Bombay Presidency was the result. Next year the famine spread to the North-West Provinces and the Panjab, without diminishing in the Deccan. Gigantic relief works were undertaken by Government. In Madras as many as two and a half million persons were in receipt of relief at one time, two-thirds of them being unfit for labour. It was not till the end of 1878 that relief operations were brought to a close.

412. Conclusion.—This sketch of Indian history has now been brought to within twenty years of our own time, and we have already noticed the beginnings of some of the most important political questions of the present day. In regard to these it will be found that, taught by experience, the British Government had already adopted the line of policy it is still pursuing. In foreign relations the advance of Russia in Central Asia had shown the need of making strong the North-west frontier of India, and it

had been decided that the best way to do this was to maintain Afghanistan as a strong buffer state, independent except in so far as its foreign policy must be controlled by England. In internal policy the relation of the paramount power with native states had been so adjusted as to guarantee proper independence to their rulers and well-being to their peoples. The duty of the Government to carry out works of utility, irrigation projects, railways, roads, canals, and telegraphs, to educate the people, to foster industry and commerce, and in general to use its utmost endeavours for the moral and material progress of the country, had been recognised. It had, moreover, been established that it was both the duty and best policy of Government to admit the peoples of India, as they showed themselves fitted for it, more and more to a share in the administration of public affairs. These are the broad lines on which Great Britain has ruled India for the last twenty years, and no one can doubt with a large measure of success. But to relate ever so briefly the history of them is no part of the plan of this little book.

Leading Dates of the British Period.

	A.D.
First Charter of the East India Company	1599
The United East India Company formed	1708
Madras captured by the French	1746
Dupleix at the zenith of his power	1750
Clive at Arcot	1751
Treaty of Pondicherry	1755
The Black Hole tragedy	1756
Battle of Plassey	1757
Battle of Vandivash	1759
Defeat of the Dutch at Chinsura	„
Massacre at Patna	1763

	A.D.
Battle of Baxar	1764
Battle of Korah	1765
Treaty of Madras	1769
The Regulating Act	1773
Warren Hastings, first Governor-General	1774
Treaty of Surat	1775
Treaty of Purandhar	1776
Convention of Wargam	1778
Battle of Porto Novo	1781
Treaty of Salbai	1782
Treaty of Mangalore	1784
Pitt's Bill	,,
Lord Cornwallis, Governor-General	1786
Peace of Seringapatam	1792
Permanent Revenue Settlement	1793
Battle of Kurdla	1795
Marquis of Wellesley, Governor-General	1798
Fall of Seringapatam	1799
Battle of Puna	1801
Treaty of Basin	1802
The Second Mahratta war	1803
Treaty of Sirji Anjengaon	,,
The Third Mahratta war	1804
The Vellore Mutiny	1806
Capture of Maloun	1814
Peace of Siganli	1816
Battle of the Sitabaldi Hills	1817
Battle of Jabulpur	,,
Battle of Mahidpur	1818
Treaty of Mandeswar	,,
Capture of Rangoon	1824
Treaty of Yendabu	1826
Capture of Bhartpur	,,
First Afghan war	1839
Massacre at Kabul	1841

	A.D.
Retreat of the British	1842
Sind annexed	1843
Battle of Maharajpur	1844
Battle of Sobraon	1846
Marquis of Dalhousie, Governor-General	1848
Battle of Chillianwalla	1849
The Panjab annexed	"
Pegu annexed	1852
Nagpur annexed	1853
Lord Canning, Governor-General	1856
Oudh annexed	"
The Sepoy Mutiny	1857
The East India Company abolished	1858
The Sitana Expedition	1863
Bhutan Expedition	1864
Orissa Famine	1866
Prince of Wales visits India	1875
Queen proclaimed Empress of India	1877
Madras Famine	"
Second Afghan war	1878
Annexation of Upper Burma	1886
Death of Queen Victoria	1901

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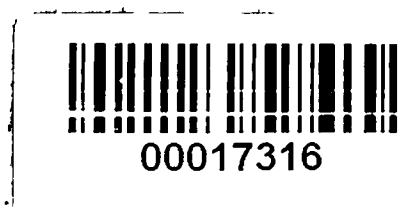
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